

The Speech Teacher

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Volume I

Number 4

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The SPEECH TEACHER

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The SPEECH TEACHER

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THE TEACHER AND HIS GRADUATE WORK

Clarence T. Simon

IN 1818, George Bancroft, the historian, was sent from Harvard University to Germany for graduate work; probably he was the first graduate student in this country to receive a stipend. Twenty years later he sent Harvard a check for \$20,000, saying he considered this suitable payment for the encouragement Harvard had given him in graduate work.

Just what is this business called graduate work anyhow? Why does it claim so much attention? Any teacher with a bachelor's degree is almost forced to ask: What has it to do with me? I went to college, I have a good education and a job. My students like my courses. Why all the hullabaloo about going back to school again? Should I really do it? Will a graduate degree actually make me a better teacher? Why should I sit in classes again? I've learned as I've taught—plenty.

Whatever questions we may ask ourselves or others, it seems that advanced study has become an integral part of our professional lives. Individually, we may see it as a great force to lift the level of all mankind, or, perhaps through skeptical eyes, as a blight on the fair flower of education. As teachers, we may respond to the words "graduate

work" with either our sympathetic or parasympathetic nervous systems, but the words and their implications cannot be ignored. Journals, Placement Bureaus, administrators, and fellow teachers constantly bring them to our attention. Plans for study beyond the bachelor's degree are approaching the routine in the teaching profession.

What is graduate work? What does it really mean? What, if anything, should the happily employed and successful teacher do about it? Why? Viewed broadly and impersonally, graduate study is an indication of the rising standards of knowledge and performance in the job of teaching; an evidence of the heightened sense of professional responsibility for the intellectual future of America. Seen individually and personally, it is a challenge to the good teacher to be a better one; an opportunity for the alert and inquiring mind to roam and master wider fields of knowledge.

Statistics may be confusing, and percentages hide the people they represent. Whether presented in charts, percentages, or comparisons, however, the growth of graduate work in these latter years has outrun even the wildest predictions of a previous generation. In terms of actual numbers at least, the holder of a master's degree today just equals the possessor of a bachelor's of

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twenty-five years ago; percentagewise, he has dropped behind. The 1950's see more master's degrees conferred each year than there were bachelor's in the 1920's. Similarly, these days launch more new doctorates each year than master's a generation ago. Just to stretch the perspective a bit farther, the annual crop of doctoral hoods now exceeds the bachelor's gowns of the 1890's.¹

What can account for this growth, particularly the acceleration in recent years? Obviously, causes are numerous and intermingled. Some may be seen clearly, others only surmised, if perceived at all. In part, of course, this growth in advanced study has come with the increase in population. Yet this is not the whole story. While population has doubled since 1900, in the same period the number of doctor's degrees has been multiplied by 15, and the number of master's by 31.

Another factor, one which touches the life and position of every teacher, is the respect for education existing in this country. From Colonial days, the people of the United States have held a firm belief in the individual and social values of learning. Literacy has been accepted as a prime indication of the stature and power of a nation; universal education has been deemed the best assurance of wise and peaceable solution of social and economic problems through its provision of an enlightened and thoughtful citizenry. Though it is frightening sometimes to contemplate the degree of our trust in education for the salvation of humankind, that faith has been one of the tenets of our democracy. Skeptics frequently question the correlation between knowledge and wisdom, but there has been a continuing

conviction that knowledge carries at least the key to wisdom.

The rural and pioneer people of the early days of this country obviously were too busy hewing out the necessities of life to provide the desired education and scholarship for more than a very small minority. In these latter days, however, inventive genius and the marvels of mass production have widened the difference between our total supply of time and the hours we need to provide food, clothing, and shelter. Time and energy are freed for education; the increase in both the school population and the length of the schooling, like the forty-hour week, is a product of the modern age.²

More recently, industrial organizations and government agencies, like the professions, have demanded highly educated and specialized personnel. Vast research programs in industry and government, ever-widening knowledge and use of both the natural and social sciences, as well as the humanities, have brought a demand for training obtainable only on the graduate level. The hallowed "four years in college halls" are not enough for modern life.

Quite naturally, this growth in number of students, length of schooling, and demands for research ability and specialization, have increased the preparation needed for teaching. Thus a teacher, seeking some measure of satisfaction and feeling of competence, once found it in graduation from high school. Through the years, however, pedagogical neophytes have reached for the

² It is conceivable that this growth in education may have contributed directly to our economic stability through the reduction of potential technological unemployment. While no nation, prior to this time, has been able to solve its unemployment problem without resorting to military conscription, it is possible that education may hold at least a partial answer.

¹ Speech follows the growth shown in other academic areas. See, for example, Clarence T. Simon, "Graduate Study in Speech," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 36 (Dec., 1950), pp. 462-470.

same goal, first with a two-year normal diploma, then a bachelor's degree; now in work for the master's and the doctorate. The length of schooling has grown for both the students and their teachers.

Graduate work, in brief, is not the invention of the school masters, nor of any accrediting agency. It is as much a part of contemporary life as the automobile and television.

II.

With advanced study such an integral part of our educational world, what shall the individual teacher do? Habitually living above lower brain levels, the teacher will view his problem cerebrally rather than thalamically; fact finding and analysis will be the order of the day. But how get the facts?

First must come your decision to study for an advanced degree or not. If, as is quite likely, your answer to that is "yes," then select the earliest possible time. Each year of delay reduces the professional and economic value of any degree. Advanced study pays off in increased competence and satisfaction with work accomplished, and also in prestige and income. Delay can result only in a smaller total return on your investment. On the monetary plane alone, it is not uncommon for graduate students to discover that the increase in income following the degree will pay off the money borrowed, plus interest, in less time than would have been needed to accumulate an adequate "nest-egg" at the pre-graduate level. Delay cuts your satisfaction and prestige, and hits the pocketbook.

Purchase of advanced study requires money, time, and precious energy. Common sense, therefore, dictates at least a minimum of "shopping" to select the school which offers the courses and op-

portunities you wish and need. Unfortunately the academic world provides no cafeterias or supermarts complete with cellophane and price tags. So the wise teacher "shops by mail." Begin with several schools of the size or type, or in the geographical area, that interest you. Write for their catalogs; compare regulations, courses, programs. Turn to Knowler's "Index of Graduate Work,"³ Dow's "Abstracts of Theses in the Field of Speech and Drama,"⁴ and Auer's "Doctoral Dissertations in Speech: Work in Progress,"⁵ for information concerning the number of degrees in your area of interest granted by these institutions, the types of theses and dissertations, and the range and scope of the indicated research. Perhaps most important, write letters of inquiry; ask for personal information. Any graduate advisor will be glad to answer questions. He is interested in graduate students, their problems and plans; otherwise he would not be a graduate advisor. At conventions and conferences talk to graduate instructors teaching at various institutions. By all means, talk to former students; they have been through the program. As veterans of the academic front, they have a realistic view, expressed frequently with a candor and a wealth of intimate information more valuable to the prospective student than anything printed in a university catalog.

Your answers, however, are not all in the catalogs or the testimonials of the experienced. Self-questioning and observation must contribute to the solution of both academic and economic problems. In what phase or area am I particularly interested; in what field do I wish to work in the years to come? What area seems to offer me the best

³ *Speech Monographs*, II (1935-).

⁴ *Ibid.*, XIII (1946-).

⁵ *Ibid.*, XVIII (1951-).

possibility for a good job?⁶ Concerning my program as a whole, do I wish specialization or a broader and more general view? Most graduate institutions allow the student considerable latitude; choose the degree of specialization or breadth your professional aims require. You are making the purchase.

Graduate work depends, too, on men; on the instructors who teach the courses. Thoughtfulness, therefore, prompts such questions as: What men are working in my field of interest? What do they offer in knowledge, research training, and scholarly stimulation? What do they have of wisdom and vision from which I may profit? The wise graduate student, planning for rich and profitable study, "takes" men as well as courses.

From the financial view, what is my most convenient and least expensive program when I consider the future years as well as the present? Shall I do my master's work in summer sessions, or shall I lessen the elapsed months by study during the winter? Should my doctorate consume the minimum year of residence plus a number of widely spaced summer sessions, or is uninterrupted full-time study more economical? Can I obtain a fellowship or scholarship? If so, can I afford to take it? Will the undoubted financial advantage of a stipend be canceled by the extension of time required by part-time teaching? There are no pat answers to these questions; there are no norms or guides printed in the catalogs. You are the final authority.

Graduate work is certain to be expensive; unquestionably it is demanding of time and energy. But in the modern educational world it pays off in com-

petence and prestige, in opportunity and income. Select the school which offers the courses, the opportunities, and the men you—as an individual—need to make your advanced study interesting and profitable.

III.

Some of the biggest questions concern the human aspects of advanced study. What does it mean to be a graduate student? What do I do? What happens to me when I join the "company of scholars?" Any one can turn up a sizable number of articles and books on graduate work, and can find numerous discussions of the differences between undergraduate and graduate programs.⁷ Catalogs give requirements for degrees and instructions for registration. All these, however, are inevitably impersonal, whereas the teacher contemplating a year or more of advanced study is an individual. The journals and catalogs, unfortunately, give little information on the human job of being a graduate student.

"Being a graduate student" requires, first of all, some change in the teacher's habits. The most obvious instances of the required adjustments lie in the physical factors of life: A new campus with different routines and time schedules; changes in residence involving the loss of the familiar location of everything from dining table to bathroom; perhaps sudden immersion in the confusion and distractions of student housing; frequently the absence of family and of loved and needed friends.

These physical factors, however, are in the open; they are seen and, by most, recognized. Other adaptations are less

⁶ Loren D. Reid, "Graduate Study and Teacher Placement," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 34 (April, 1948), pp. 177-182.

⁷ See Walton C. John, *Graduate Study in Universities and Colleges in the United States* (U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 20, 1934); Ernest V. Hollis, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs* (American Council on Education, 1945).

obvious, though perhaps even more pervasive. The mere shift from teaching to student activities interposes real difficulties, which increase with the length of the teaching experience. In teaching, one's study is done largely for immediate use of the material in his classes, with consequent higher motivation and the advantages of organized recall. The graduate student, however, reads today for a quiz, a final, or a comprehensive examination on a more or less remote tomorrow. The teacher reads and studies as he wishes and as his immediate needs may indicate; the graduate student follows the instructor's suggestions. The teacher remembers the items important to him; the graduate student tries to retain everything that is significant for his research or that might seem important to his instructor or to an examining committee, or, even more remotely, valuable in later teaching.

These forced changes in well-established habits, even though sometimes unrecognized, inevitably bring some measure of frustration and anxiety. Caught in this stress of habit changes, the student may well project his tensions to irrelevant areas. Unthinkingly he doubts the wisdom of his decision, questions the humanness and understanding of his instructors, and, most devastatingly and untruthfully, denies his own ability. New schedules and different activities can produce rather unpleasant and hampering emotions; merely being a graduate student requires a bit of doing!

Yet application of the very intelligence and initiative responsible for the original decision to register as a graduate student can resolve the tensions. The stimulation of vigorous and able associates and the excitement of new areas of knowledge help focus the stu-

dent's attention on the job at hand, on the challenge of scholarship. Preoccupation with self is lost in the adventure of widening intellectual horizons—a cheering and salutary experience. The three threatening D's of graduate work—Discomfort, Discontent, and Discouragement—*can* be recorded on any graduate program; but only by permission of the student himself. Through his alertness to opportunities and his honest effort, the dedicated graduate student collects instead the desirable and rewarding A's—Adaptation, Adventure, and Accomplishment.

IV.

There is no doubt that graduate study requires time and money; may occasion an inconvenient interruption of accustomed and comfortable routines of living. These are the costs. The profit side of the ledger is richly filled with its record of both immediate and long-time gains.

Graduate degrees, as such, are decorative chunks of the alphabet. They are frequently necessary, and always convenient. Moreover, they are permanent investments, safe from prowlers and business cycles. Most immediately comforting to the owner, there is never a need to explain or justify the absence of the significant letters.

True graduate study, however, does not exist to provide additional degrees, valuable as they are. The degree is, and should be, a symbol and not the goal. For the graduate student, the ultimately-to-be-conferred degree should be the badge of a type of experience and activity, not the center of attention. As "degree-chasers" find to their sorrow, mere myopic following of the prescribed routines is frustrating and limitedly rewarding. Work for the degree alone tends to lose the joy of exploration in

a bog of personal fears, with achievement lessened measurably by focus on the self rather than the subject matter. Graduate work exists to provide a rich and stimulating experience for the student, and to prepare him for greater contribution to his profession and heightened pleasure in his own living. These are the true and significant profits of graduate study.

These profits of advanced study come, in part, from courses, contacts with instructors, and exploration of new areas of knowledge. Through these, the graduate student gains new experiences, new ideas and concepts, and greater sources of wisdom. He is inspired by the scope of human knowledge and is appropriately humbled by increased awareness of the infinity of the unknown. He returns to his profession a more stimulating and helpful teacher, enriched in knowledge and, we hope, wisdom.

But graduate work is not limited to courses and to trips to the library and laboratory. The phenomenon of graduate study involves likewise an intelligent and conscious bundle of human energy, the graduate student himself. Little as we may realize it, graduate study happens *in* the student as well as *to* him. As a person the graduate student differs from the undergraduate in ways that are highly profitable both professionally and personally.

The undergraduate is largely a course taker and seldom sees his education as a whole. His answer to any question of his intellectual competence is apt to be, "I've had a course in that." The graduate student, quite differently, is challenged to individual initiative and to self-directed organization of his learning. Graduate study also rejects the undergraduate following of specific assignments and the collection of itemized information and fosters the self-reliance

and independence of creative scholarship.

Undergraduate instruction, necessarily, perhaps, tends to stress the known, to deal with established and traditional knowledge. The curriculum carries the "right" answers. Graduate work, on the contrary, develops awareness of the fallibility of observation and the gaps in human knowledge. Happily, his undergraduate notebooks, well and so satisfyingly filled with the "right" and traditional answers, gather dust on the shelf, while intellectual dissatisfaction and challenging curiosity lead the graduate student in the ways of real scholarship.

So while graduate work does mean degrees, new knowledge, new experience, it also means still more. Its priceless heritage is the habit of research. Whether we spell that word in capitals or lower case, whether the habit is built in courses, seminars, or dissertations, research means curiosity and self-initiative in action, the settled need to probe and master the unknown. "Research is essentially a welcoming attitude toward change. A going out to look for change instead of waiting for it to come."⁸ The teacher who lacks its needling drive dies at the top. Worse, the failure to welcome and seek change too quickly slides into the habit of resisting it. As our world of today moves, such a teacher becomes a drag on his profession, with unhappiness his lot.

Advanced study is an integral part of our professional life; increasingly it is customary and even demanded. Whatever our view of it, it is one important way the individual teacher may answer the challenge of his increasing responsibility in the guidance of youth.

⁸ C. F. Kettering, "More Music, Please, Composers," *Saturday Evening Post*, 211, No. 11, Sept. 10, 1938, p. 33.

SIX EARMARKS OF A SOUND FORENSICS PROGRAM

Douglas Ehninger

I.

APPARENTLY a few teachers of speech still believe that the success of a school's forensics program may be measured merely by counting the number of cups in its trophy case. Fortunately, however, the majority are now more interested in the contribution which that program makes toward the intellectual, social, and moral development of the students who participate in it.

But while the total growth of the student has generally come to be recognized as the broad aim of all forensic activities, there is considerable disagreement as to how this aim may best be achieved.

This paper is in no sense an attempt to settle the controversy. On the contrary, its intention is to stimulate thinking rather than to close it. Within reasonable limits, agreement on methods is unimportant and even perhaps undesirable. What is important is that every teacher study the problem for himself—that, instead of allowing his program to develop by chance, he earnestly inquire how it may be shaped so that the ideal of student growth will effectively be promoted. If the six so-called "earmarks" of a sound forensics program which are here suggested serve in any way to motivate such inquiry and reflection, their purpose will have been more than achieved.

II.

1. *A sound forensics program is integrated with curricular instruction in public speaking and the fundamentals of speech.* Recently educators have discarded the word "extra-curricular" and have substituted in its place the word "co-curricular." This new term emphasizes the fact that activities outside the classroom are not mere adjuncts to formal class instruction, but are an integral part of the total educative process.

In line with this philosophy, a sound forensics program is based on the same general objectives which guide instruction in the classroom, and, in so far as practicable, employs similar teaching methods. Thus, if in his classes the teacher insists that the goal of clear, intelligent, and responsible oral communication requires that each student do his own research, organize his ideas into a carefully drawn outline, and deliver them extemporaneously in a direct and conversational manner, he will not allow his debaters and discussants to borrow ready-made arguments, arrange them at random, and present them from memory, or in an unpleasant or oratorical fashion. Nor will he permit them to parrot a pattern of analysis and proof which he himself feeds them. To violate these principles is not only to work at cross purposes, but to undermine those very premises upon which curricular instruction is founded.

At the same time, practical considerations will dictate a division of labor between the curricular and co-curricular

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areas. In his courses the teacher will aim principally at developing those fundamentals of communicative speech which are of the greatest practical use to the majority of his students. In the forensics program, on the other hand, he will assume a certain mastery of fundamentals, and will concentrate on such advanced principles of proof and delivery as are suited to the more experienced and talented minority.

Thus, though the curricular and co-curricular aspects of his work are tuned to the same general philosophy and directed toward the same final outcomes or objectives, each area will also have its own more specific functions; and these will be distributed not only so as to avoid duplication, but in accordance with the needs and capabilities of the particular group served.

2. *A sound forensics program is student-centered.* A forensics program should exist primarily for the benefit of the students who participate in it; not for the enhancement of the director's professional reputation or as a public relations tool designed to increase the prestige of the school. While both of these results may, as a matter of course, follow from it, they must always be regarded as purely secondary and incidental.

Because it does exist primarily for the student, the program is, in some measure, student planned and operated. For not only is participation in these matters itself a valuable educative experience, but by freeing the director of many details of correspondence and record keeping, it enables him to spend proportionately more time in working directly with his debaters and discussants.

Ideally, those aspects of planning and administration which are entrusted to students will be centered in a formally

organized debate club or council, with specific responsibilities assigned to each of its members. In addition to its other values, such an organization teaches students to work cooperatively in carrying out projects which are of immediate importance to them, and provides practical training in the basic principles of parliamentary law and committee procedure.

3. *In a sound forensics program participation is regulated by educationally defensible principles.* In a worthwhile forensics program the number of student-participants and the amount of activity that each is assigned are regulated by a carefully thought out set of educationally defensible principles.

a. Participation is spread among as many students as can be given thorough training and a reasonable amount of experience in interschool debate or discussion situations. While, on the one hand, this most emphatically does not mean adherence to the so-called "star system," on the other, it does not necessarily mean that participation is open to all who may desire it. For just as the first policy makes for an indefensibly narrow use of the director's time and energies and leads perhaps to his ignoring many potentially capable students, so may the second mean that he spreads himself too thin or gives an unwarranted amount of attention to the incapable or undeserving.

b. Training in debate and discussion, while admittedly valuable, must in no way be allowed to interfere with the student's general academic achievement. Certainly, it does not justify either excessive absences or a low quality of class work.

c. A student's participation in forensics should constitute but one part of a well-rounded program of co-curricular activities. Instead of demanding all of their time outside the classroom, the

wise teacher will encourage his debaters and discussants to engage in those other co-curricular phases of school life which will best promote their general development. This he does because, as an educator, his concern is to build competent and well-rounded men and women, not to train a troupe of highly specialized performers.

4. *A sound forensics program teaches social responsibility.* For centuries men have realized that the effective public speaker has at his command a powerful tool which may be used either to benefit society or to harm it. The student should be made keenly aware of the moral responsibilities which rest upon him when he undertakes to persuade others. These include speaking only after mature reflection, having a healthy respect for facts, and striving constantly for the public good rather than for selfish ends. The forensics program which does not teach these basic ethical attitudes fails to meet one of its principal obligations not only to the students who participate in it but to society as a whole.

Moreover, a worthwhile forensics plan develops healthy student attitudes toward competition; for it recognizes that, whether we like it or not, competition is a permanent and important element of our national culture. Since such attitudes obviously may not be developed by avoiding all events in which decisions are given, it includes these as well as non-decision events on its annual schedule. Indeed, it deliberately uses decision situations, not merely as a motivation to thorough preparation, but as a practical means of teaching students to view competition objectively.

5. *A sound forensics program is progressive.* A healthy forensics program is not dormant and static, but is constantly being strengthened.

To this end, the schedule for the entire season, instead of growing in a hit-and-miss fashion as various invitations come across the teacher's desk, is carefully planned in advance so as to provide a balanced and fruitful sequence of experiences.

As an important guide to this planning, each tournament or other event in which the school participates is objectively evaluated by the director and his debaters while it is still fresh in their minds. Those which are inferior in quality are dropped from future consideration, while those which seem to be of real value are retained. Thus over a period of time the program as a whole is strengthened and brought more closely into line with its basic objectives.

Moreover, in planning the program other important considerations are borne in mind:

a. Full advantage is taken of the numerous services offered by the National University Extension Association, the National Forensic League, and the debate league of the state in which the school is located. Whatever their weaknesses, these organizations are making an honest and concerted effort to improve the quality of interschool forensics by furnishing the best available materials for the study of the current national question and by sponsoring well-planned festivals and tournaments.

b. Experience is provided in all of the more common forms of argumentative deliberation. These include the round table, symposium, and congress, as well as the straight and cross-question debate; and then, if possible, also the more specialized forms of radio and television discussion. In addition, there is perhaps a regular monthly forum meeting in which all active debaters and discussants participate.

c. Each qualified student speaker is

given one or more opportunities to appear before a face-to-face audience, with the usual question period always forming an integral part of such experiences.

d. A number of different questions, or at least certain modifications of the national question, are used during the year so that the student's knowledge of current affairs may be broadened and his skills of analysis and adaptation sharpened.

e. As a general policy the director insists that all non-decision, as well as decision events in which his students participate be followed by oral critiques given by qualified critics, or at least that written critiques prepared by such experts be made available to his speakers. The recommendations and suggestions contained in these evaluations are welcomed as a means of improving future performance.

6. *A sound forensics program is respected in the school, the community, and the region of the country in which it is carried on.* For reasons of his own professional pride any director of forensics naturally desires that his program be respected in his school, community, and region. But there are also additional and more important reasons why such respect must be gained.

The program must be respected in the school because no matter how hard the director himself may work he cannot hope to make it succeed unless it is actively supported by his colleagues and administrative officers. Not only must teachers in history and the social sciences be willing to help students in their study of debate and discussion questions, and those in speech and English to assist occasionally in their preparation, but at one or more times during the year every member of the faculty may have to be called on to serve as a judge or to render other assistance at

locally sponsored tournaments. The director whose program is honestly respected in his school may solicit such aid without hesitation, and with the assurance that it will be more readily and cheerfully given.

The role which the principal and other administrative officers of the school play in building a sound forensics program is perhaps too obvious to require comment. Indeed, unless they support it by providing a reasonable budget and adjusting the director's normal service load, the program may not even exist, let alone succeed.

For different but equally important reasons, the program must also be generally respected within the community. Not only does the community provide a variety of potential audiences before which student speakers may appear, but it probably has one or more radio stations, and perhaps a television station, over which debates and discussions may be presented. In addition, the director will from time to time desire publicity in the local press. Experience has repeatedly shown that when a forensics program is truly respected in a community these facilities are readily made available.

Respect throughout that region of the state or country in which the program is carried on is gained principally by a reputation for consistently sound work and for good sportsmanship and gentlemanly conduct on the part of both the director and his debaters. In the final analysis, these two factors are more important than the number of debates and tournaments won. For, even though a phenomenal record may be established in competition, any program which allows the use of "trick cases," or substitutes the "stock analyses" and argumentative commonplaces for a thorough study of the question soon comes to be

regarded as of dubious educational value. In the same way, the director who is constantly criticizing the quality of the judging or jockeying for unfair advantages at the tournaments and festivals he attends loses the respect of his colleagues.

III.

While it may hardly be said that any central theme has run through all of these six suggested "earmarks" of a sound forensics plan, at more than one point it has been either directly or indirectly implied that the general development of the student is best promoted by a program in which the fundamental intellectual, social, and moral values are regarded as paramount.

Such a philosophy certainly should require no defence among teachers and school administrators. Its importance does, however, deserve emphasis; and especially so in view of a dangerous trend which appears to be gaining momentum in the field of interschool debate and discussion activities. This is the tendency to measure success in terms of what might be called "bigness."

While most teachers no longer regard a win and loss record as the sole criterion of achievement, a very great many seem to have freed their thinking of this premise, only to fall prey to another one that is equally false: the notion that a big forensics program is *per se* a good one. They constantly strive to attract a larger number of students, to schedule more events, to travel longer distances, to get more sizeable budgets, and to secure ever increasing amounts of publicity. Then, simply because their programs are growing in these respects, they assume the worth of them to be automatically proved.

Where or how this trend started, it is difficult to say. There is some evidence to indicate that college directors of forensics were the original offenders. If, however, this was the case, my own observation in a number of different parts of the country has shown that many of their colleagues on the secondary level were only too eager to follow the lead, and that at the present time this dangerous philosophy finds numerous adherents in both groups.

Now "bigness" in itself is not, of course, an evil. The danger lies in the fact that it may come to replace more fundamental values, or that the uncurbed desire to be "big" will lead to a compromising of crucial values. Thus, instead of existing for the sake of the student, it may even happen that the student is exploited for the sake of the program.

Few probably would deny that this is exactly what has happened in intercollegiate athletics. Nor may it be denied that in this field the desire to be "big," coupled with the desire to win, has led many schools to resort to underhanded practices of recruitment and a general relaxing of the standards of sportsmanship and fair play.

If this philosophy of "bigness" continues to gain ground in interschool forensics, it is no exaggeration to say that we may soon be subjected to criticisms and investigations which will make our recent bout with the North Central Association seem tame. Indeed, there are already signs that some administrators believe we are getting out of balance.

In the face of this situation our challenge is clear. We must do more than pay lip service to the ideal of the student-centered forensics program. We must make that ideal a reality.

A STUDY OF ATTITUDE TOWARD DEBATE

Clayton H. Schug

PROBLEM

THE problem stems from two main sources: (1) from school and college administrators, officials, and teachers outside the fields of speech and debate, some of whom, especially within the past two or three years, in certain areas of the country at least, have heaped severe and serious criticism upon debate, even to the extent of urging the abolition of interscholastic debate contests; (2) from debate coaches, many of whom appear to have taken this criticism lightly, at least for all practical purposes, and who, apparently, are more interested in defending the status quo in debate than in making an honest attempt to discover what the specific objections to debate are, and whether or not these objections are legitimate.

PURPOSE

Our purpose, therefore, was to determine, specifically, the attitude toward debate on the part of secondary school and college administrators and officials, as well as college teachers in related subject matter areas, outside the field of speech and debate. The attitude of these respective groups is significant, not only because some of their members have already spoken out against debate from time to time, but also because most of them, if not all, are in a position to bring considerable pressure to bear upon the elimination of debate from the academic scene on the one hand, or, on the other, upon the elevation of de-

bate to a more dignified and academically accepted position than it now holds.

For the secondary schools, the sampling of attitude was limited to the state of Pennsylvania; while for the colleges, our sampling included all sections of the country—East, West, Mid-West, South, and Southwest.

PROCEDURE

The following questionnaire on attitude toward debate was constructed, composed of eight items in part one and a set of sixty statements of attitude in part two, patterned after the Thurstone and Chave questionnaire on attitude toward the church:¹

Check (✓) every statement below that expresses your sentiments toward debate. Interpret the statements in accordance with your own experience with debates.

1. Experience gained by participation in a well-coached debate program is all profit.
2. The successful debater learns more about library investigation, note-taking, orderly classification, and "handling data" than any other undergraduate could possibly learn from all the classes in the curriculum.
3. Debate speeches are artificial, flowery, highly emotional, and overly dramatic.
4. Debates are overly formal and stylized—too much rigmarole.
5. Tournament debating should be supplanted by audience debating.
6. Debaters and coaches strive to win at any cost.
7. The cross-examination style of debate is better training for the debater and is more interesting to the audience than the orthodox style.
8. Present methods of judging debates are satisfactory.

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¹ L. L. Thurstone and E. J. Chave, *The Measurement of Attitude* (University of Chicago Press, 1929), pp. 60-63.

A STUDY OF ATTITUDE TOWARD DEBATE

This is a study of attitude toward debate. You will be asked to read a list of statements about debate and to endorse those that express your own general sentiments. Let your own experience with debate, either as a debater, coach, auditor, or any combination of these, determine your endorsements.

1. Name*
2. Underline your classification:
School Teacher, School Administrator, College Teacher, College Administrator
3. Did you debate in high school or college? Yes No (Underline one)
4. Did you coach debate in high school or college? Yes No (Underline one)
5. Approximately how many debates have you heard?
0, 1-10, 11-30, 31-60, 61-100, over 100 (Underline one)
6. Does your school sponsor debate? Yes No (Underline one)
If not, why not? Lack of time Lack of funds Lack of interest
Lack of capable coach Lack of value Other reason (Underline)
7. Before turning this page, write a brief statement indicating your general attitude toward debate as you know it.
.....
.....
.....

8. Mark an X somewhere on each of the lines below to indicate where you think you belong.

Strongly favorable to
interscholastic debate

Neutral

Strongly opposed to
interscholastic debate

Strongly favorable to
intercollegiate debate

Neutral

Strongly opposed to
intercollegiate debate

*You need not sign your name, if you prefer to give your opinions anonymously.

-
- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Debaters manufacture evidence—have little regard for the actual facts. 10. I do not object to the use of relatively few selected persons in actual debate. 11. Debate is not conducive to honest thinking. 12. Debaters all too frequently look upon debate merely as a game—an intellectual sport, and have little interest in presenting a practical solution to the problem at hand. 13. Debaters use insufficient evidence and logic. 14. Debaters engage in too much contention over trivialities. 15. Debate makes for more intelligent citizenship. 16. Cynicism or hypocrisy develops as a result of defending both sides of a proposition. 17. Debate lacks audience appeal. 18. Discussion precedes debates: it is no substitute for debate. 19. Wins and losses should be de-emphasized in favor of a system of quality rating. 20. If evils exist in debate, the fault lies with the coaches and the judges rather than with contest debating itself. 21. Debating is sophistry. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 22. Debate needs coaches with better training and a more wholesome philosophy of debate. 23. The minute we destroy debate, we destroy democracy and create dictatorship. 24. Debaters tend to view all life in terms of black-white, right-wrong. 25. Debate teaches one how to discover and state issues in a given proposition. 26. Decision debating should be supplanted by non-decision debating. 27. Debate develops self-confidence and qualities of leadership. 28. Debaters indulge in a juvenile reliance upon authorities. 29. Debaters may be characterized as having glib tongues, strong lungs, and bad manners. 30. Preparation too often consists of memorizing discussion previously written by the coach or some "shark." 31. Debate teaches one not what to think, but how to think. 32. Debate develops good sportsmanship—favorable attitudes toward winning and losing. 33. I like the style of speaking used in debate. |
|---|---|

34. Debate is too time-consuming compared to other equally worthwhile activities.
35. Debate teaches one how to separate unimportant and irrelevant matters from matters that are consequential and pivotal in any kind of situation.
36. The usual debater gets his conclusions before he gets his evidence; the whole educational process for him is turned upside down—it is all backwards.
37. Debaters are too dogmatic.
38. Discussion should supplant debate, since it is nearer to real life situations.
39. Debaters are incapable of objective research and scholarly investigation.
40. Coaches are frequently guilty of dictating the team's case.
41. To have the opportunity of debating both sides of a question is excellent training.
42. The democratic process demands training in reasoned advocacy, as well as in reasoned investigation.
43. A debater's major objective is to persuade his listeners to accept a given proposition or solution to a problem: winning a decision is secondary.
44. It is the only activity left in which students are required to do some thinking.
45. Debate teaches one how to appraise and marshal evidence.
46. Spreading participation to "the many" is preferable to concentrating on securing a high percentage of wins by limiting participation to "the few."
47. The orthodox style of debate is better training for the debater and is more interesting to the audience than the cross-examination style.
48. Debaters learn nothing practical about persuasion.
49. Debaters lack respect for the opinions of others.
50. Debaters nearly always speak honestly and sincerely.
51. There is far more good than bad to be derived from contest debating.
52. The policy of training a few to be "stars" rather than training many for active participation cannot be condoned as sound educational practice.
53. There is altogether too much reliance upon debate handbooks and manuals.
54. Most debaters, I believe, construct their own cases and write their own speeches.
55. Debate teaches one how to recognize fallacies and weaknesses in arguments.
56. I object to the practice of those coaches who arbitrarily assign debaters to sides.
57. Negative teams refuse to take a defensive stand; that is, to offer a solution to the problem at hand, when challenged by the affirmative.
58. Debate teaches one to recognize another's right to hold a different opinion.
59. Debaters usually do not look at the whole thing—only points.
60. Debaters too often indulge in trickery and the twisting of evidence to serve their purposes.

ITEM ONE: *Signature was not required*

ITEM TWO: *Classification*

A total of 300 questionnaires were sent as follows: 150 to Pennsylvania school administrators, including 66 County Superintendents; 18 District Superintendents; and 66 Supervising Principals.

150 to college administrators and teachers, including 26 Presidents; 34 Deans; 46 Teachers in education; 44 Teachers in political science, economics, sociology, history, and English; 105 of the college questionnaires were sent to personnel in large universities; and 45 were sent to personnel in small colleges.

The geographical distribution was as follows: 42—East, 55—Mid-West, 17—South, 10—Southwest, and 26—West.

ITEM THREE: *Debate Experience*

It was believed that a possible comparison of attitude between those with debate experience and those without might be both interesting and revealing.

ITEM FOUR: *Coaching Experience*

While every effort was made to exclude debate coaches from our mailing list, we felt that it would probably be important, for purposes of interpreting our results, to include this item, since numerous former debate coaches, no doubt, now find themselves in administrative positions.

ITEM FIVE: *Auditor Experience*

This item was included, since the number of debates heard might affect

one's attitude, which in turn might have some bearing upon the results, especially if a high percentage of those replying had heard only a very few debates.

ITEM SIX: *Status of Debate*

While this item was not at all essential to the study, it was felt that it might be interesting to learn the status of debate in each of the schools and colleges represented by those replying to the questionnaire.

ITEM SEVEN: *Statement of Attitude*

This item afforded the individual an opportunity to express his attitude in his own words and in his own way.

ITEM EIGHT: *Attitude Scale*

Here the individual was able to indicate his degree of approval or disapproval of debate, making it possible to group those who replied into one of three general categories—favorable, neutral, or opposed.

The second part of the questionnaire was composed of a set of sixty statements of attitude toward debate. These sixty statements were culled from an original list of 174, of which 106 ranged from the neutral, or near-neutral, position to the extremely unfavorable position, and of which 68 ranged from the neutral, or near-neutral, position to the position of extreme favorableness. The statements were obtained by means of a preliminary survey among secondary school and college administrators, teachers outside the areas of speech and debate, none of whom were sent the final questionnaire, of course, and from the literature in the field.

Statements of duplication and near-duplication were eliminated until a reasonable and practicable number remained, expressing various degrees of approbation and disapprobation, ranging from those extremely favorable (#2—

"the successful debater learns more about library investigation, note taking, orderly classification, and 'handling data' than any other undergraduate could possibly learn from all the classes in the curriculum," #23—"the minute we destroy debate we destroy democracy and create dictatorship," and #44—"it is the only activity left in which students are required to do some thinking,") through the neutral position (#7—"the cross-examination style of debate is better training for the debater and is more interesting to the audience than the orthodox style," #10—"I do not object to the use of relatively few selected persons in actual debate," and #46—"spreading participation to 'the many' is preferable to concentrating on securing a high percentage of wins by limiting participation to 'the few,'" to those extremely unfavorable (#6—"debaters and coaches strive to win at any cost," #21—"debating is sophistry," and #39—"debaters are incapable of objective research and scholarly investigation.")

The subjects were asked to check every statement that expressed their sentiments toward debate.

RESULTS

Of the 300 questionnaires mailed, 180, or 60%, were returned; 170 or 56%, were tabulated; 10, or 4%, had to be discarded because they were improperly filled out.

Seventeen of the 170 questionnaires tabulated were returned by school teachers, 79 by school administrators, 39 by college teachers, and 35 by college administrators.

Of those replying, 58 had previous experience in both debate and coaching in either high school or college; 60 had debate experience, but no experience in coaching; 14 were without experience

in debate, but with coaching experience; and 37 had neither debate nor coaching experience. In other words, 118 had been debaters, while 51 were non-debaters; 72 had been debate coaches, while 97 had never coached.

Fortunately, none of those replying was without experience as an auditor of debate and only 14 had heard as few as 1-10 debates; 43 had listened to 11-30 debates; 43 to 31-60 debates; 25 to 61-100 contests; and 44 had heard over 100 debates.

Among the schools and colleges represented by the replies, we find that 98 sponsor debate (31 schools and 67 colleges), while 57 do not (51 schools and 6 colleges). The reasons advanced for not sponsoring debate in these schools and colleges were as follows: lack of time—21; lack of funds—6; lack of interest—33; lack of a capable coach—15; lack of value—4; and other reasons—7.

On the attitude scale, we found that 57% had indicated their attitude to be "strongly favorable to interscholastic debate," 40% "neutral," and 2% "strongly opposed." On the attitude scale for intercollegiate debate the results were: 62% "strongly favorable," 34% "neutral," and 2% "strongly opposed."

The statements in which those replying expressed their attitude toward debate in their own words ranged all the way from highly favorable to highly unfavorable as did the statements, of

TABLE I

ATTITUDES OF GROUPS TOWARD INTERSCHOLASTIC DEBATE AS INDICATED ON ATTITUDE SCALE

	Strongly Favorable	Neutral	Strongly Opposed
School Teachers	58%	35%	5%
School Administrators	53%	45%	1%
College Teachers	51%	42%	5%
College Administrators	73%	26%	0%
All Groups	57%	40%	2%

TABLE II

ATTITUDE OF GROUPS TOWARD INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATE AS INDICATED ON ATTITUDE SCALE

	Strongly Favorable	Neutral	Strongly Opposed
School Teachers	71%	28%	0%
School Administrators	56%	41%	1%
College Teachers	50%	42%	7%
College Administrators	82%	17%	0%
All Groups	62%	34%	2%

course, used in the questionnaire itself.

The following statements of attitude were received from those in each group as indicated:

School Teachers:

Debate contributes to clear thinking, interest in current problems, good diction, poise before a group, and confidence in one's ability to reason.

Debate is an excellent activity for developing the best attitudes of intellectual curiosity, documentation, and logical thinking. However, its effect on the teen-age mind is sometimes to foster blind partisanship and an over-intense competitive attitude.

I think formal debate valuable only to a small percent of high school students, and therefore not advisable for small high schools.

School Administrators:

Excellent training—usually does not reach enough pupils.

Ideal to teach pupils logical organization of ideas, careful and exact expression, and use of English.

Debating is excellent training. More attention should be given to it in high school. Probably, in the past, debate has not been made meaningful to the average high school student.

Am a firm believer in debating. Fine training for future. Teaches participant to think in a crisis.

Debate is the most common form of oral speech, and I believe it affords the best form of oral speech training in our high schools. If used in the right way, it is also the best training in thinking.

Debating is very helpful to students. There should be more of it.

I have favored it because it develops poise, enhances research, challenges analysis of issues, provokes desire to express thoughts precisely and effectively.

Valuable activity to promote training for alert citizenship in a democracy.

Debating should be a "must" in every high school curriculum. It trains for future leadership. It teaches respect for the opinions of others, which leads to better understanding.

I know of no training, for those who show an interest, equal to debate training.

I think the debate is a valuable tool in our business of public education.

I believe debating affords unusual opportunity to our young people to develop ability in public speaking and to gain poise and confidence as few other school experiences afford. I think debate is excellent training. Competition is the lifeblood of democracy. Debate is intellectual competition.

Very helpful. Establishes confidence, teaches one to think on one's feet, to sift the grain from the chaff, to develop self-control under pressure.

I feel that debating is a necessary training for our pupils. It has served well a number of our graduates.

Indispensable for high school pupils.

A wonderful medium for young people to acquire stage presence, logical organization of material, use of proper English, etc.

Debating in my judgment is one of the finest ways to teach clear thinking. All of our high school debaters are successful in their fields today.

Debate gives opportunity, if properly organized and controlled, to many able students to learn methods of research, to learn good habits of speech, to learn to organize their thinking. It deserves more general acceptance in our high schools.

Debate, if properly conducted, is the most practical course in school experience.

I think it is an excellent and worthwhile activity as long as the right attitude toward it can be maintained.

The objective, as we last had debating, was too much a matter of winning trophies and not enough of teaching values of debating.

The formality and mechanics of debate overshadow the research and reasoning which make debate worthwhile.

I feel that debating is a negative rather than a positive educational activity.

Not interesting. Trains one in organizing knowledge and in public speaking. No practical application.

To obtain the desired results, requires more time and better coaching than is presently available.

It is too strictly formalized and follows a set pattern that certainly does not appeal to teen-age students. If it could be made a more liberal medium of expression, it would be fine.

Has considerable value, but it is difficult to get a teacher to coach it.

Helpful to students. Have not always liked attitude of some coaches or teams. I wish I had more experience in debating.

Debating requires too much pupil and teacher time, reaches too few pupils, often involves more memorization than thinking, does not promote open-mindedness, and can be replaced by other activities of greater value.

College Teachers:

One of the best media for developing clear and critical thinking, accurate statement of facts, and organization of ideas.

It offers excellent training in doing research, use of logical analysis of data, public speaking, and in cooperating with others.

I strongly favor debate as an educational device.

The best possible training in public affairs and speech, but more important is the establishing of thinking habits.

I feel that intercollegiate debating fulfills an important educational function not met by the regular college courses.

I have found debate to serve as an excellent instrument for stimulating interest in and organizing thinking about important contemporary problems.

Debate is one of the best means of improving the thinking habits of students. It is of great value in preparing for business and the professions.

Very favorable—I would encourage it, both curricularly and extra-curricularly, for the majority of pre-service teachers.

I regard debating as one of the most valuable activities on the college campus. Properly conducted, it is an analytical tool of great value, and a yeasty addition to the academic mixture.

It is a force for application and integration of knowledge of all liberal arts subjects, developing breadth of understanding, and the most effective of all techniques in teaching tolerance of opposing viewpoints. It is dangerous when competition, rather than communication is the end; and where too specialized in preparation.

Excellent training, if conducted properly—i.e., with emphasis on convincing audiences, good

public speaking, etc., rather than merely winning decisions.

Debate seems to encourage superficial argument and opinion without thorough research and often without genuine understanding of the issue.

I feel debate trains in wrong, competitive, win-at-all-costs attitudes. Skills developed through debate can be developed as well other ways. It is basically unscientific and undemocratic.

The individual tends to develop a lawyer's attitude of "making a case," instead of thinking the problem through to a socially responsible decision. It is of some value, however.

I feel that debate is a highly artificial thing having value merely as a means of aiding one in his ability to organize material and to anticipate arguments of the opposition.

I believe debate may be a valuable, if somewhat dangerous, exercise. I have encouraged students to participate. The participant, however, should avoid developing a "win at any cost" attitude.

I believe that debating has a temporary or transitional value in stimulating men to read on a question and to learn to organize material, as well as to give them experience in speaking. But it is not scientific and should soon be replaced by more impartial study and research.

It can be excellent training and it can be otherwise, depending on the philosophy of education of the instructors and departments involved.

Debate style which emphasizes winning and which is based on preparing only one side of a question is as bad as commercialized football. If it is to increase knowledge and be of lasting value, the winning should be de-emphasized and the two-sided (British?) preparation used.

I am strongly opposed to competitive debate and think that it should be displaced by forms of co-operative discussion.

Tournament debating is a contradiction of the only genuine form—that in which debaters honestly argue upon an issue of real interest to them.

Unless well coached, tends to produce stubborn, argumentative people, who refuse to see others' viewpoint. I believe discussion methods produce better, more necessary results in a democracy.

As at present practiced in most schools, I question whether the outcomes for a few justify the attention given.

College Administrators:

Debate, if properly oriented, is a valuable activity for promoting sound, logical thinking and for developing the ability to express one's thoughts and beliefs effectively.

Very worthwhile on college level. Type of training college students need.

Fills a need for many students. Excellent training. Also excellent public relations for the college. Even when a student does not make the team, he gains much in experience. Debating is realistic. While some debaters seem to become conceited, "either-or-ish," most do not. Most of our college debaters are far from ruthless individuals. It is true that many students avoid the "combat" of debate, just as many avoid athletic contests.

Very much interested in it—democratic system—encourage it!

I think debating is one of the stimulating disciplines to be encouraged in secondary and higher education for its encouragement of logical thinking, forceful and clear expression, and creation of good sportsmanship.

It is a very worthwhile activity for young men and women. It is a powerful learning and personal development technic.

Very helpful to students—research, organization, evaluation, analysis, self-expression, effective speaking, interest in significant issues. Very important educationally. It is rather unfortunate that (somewhat like intercollegiate athletics) it touches so few undergraduates.

It is the purpose of education to develop students. In its field, debate will do more to meet this purpose than any other course for the same period.

The preparation for a debate, i.e., analysis of question, finding and evaluating evidence, analyzing arguments, and organization of them, is perhaps the single most valuable experience of my life.

I am highly in favor of debating in high school and college. I am only sorry that too few students take part.

One of the best curricular or extra-curricular courses to motivate and stimulate a learning situation.

I am enthusiastic about the values of debate in stimulating interest and thinking regarding issues of current moment. I rate honest debating high as a preparation for leadership in civic affairs.

Valuable experience. Difficult to get good coaches. Debates today show lack of coaches having had logic.

Too often not students' own efforts. Too much attention paid to decisions.

Too much attention to technical skills—not enough to clarification and solution of problems. Too much emphasis on the "contest" factor.

Attitude of students and coaches in general needs to change. Attention is focused on winning. Too many tournaments—not enough evaluation by coaches. Also, in many tournaments students have set ideas—not taken as an education exercise.

Some of the statements from the list of sixty included in the questionnaire which received, perhaps, the most interesting and significant scores, because of the fairly high or low rating for the particular attitude expressed were the following:

Statements favorable to debate:

- 45%—Experience gained by participation in a well-coached debate program is all profit (#1)
- 62%—There is far more good than bad to be derived from contest debating (#51)
- 72%—The democratic process demands training in reasoned advocacy, as well as in reasoned investigation (#42)
- 29%—The successful debater learns more library investigation, note-taking, orderly classification, and "handling data" than any other undergraduate could possibly learn from all the classes in the curriculum (#2)
- 61%—Debate teaches one to recognize the right of another to hold a different opinion (#58)
- 24%—Most debaters, I believe, construct their own cases and write their own speeches (#54)
- 24%—Debaters nearly always speak honestly and sincerely (#50)

Neutral or near-neutral statements:

- 21%—Present methods of judging debates are satisfactory (#8)
- 29%—Tournament debating should be supplanted by audience debating (#5)
- 31%—I object to the practice of those coaches who arbitrarily assign debaters to sides (#56)
- 55%—Spreading participation to the many is preferable to concentrating on securing a high percentage of wins by limiting participation to the few (#46)

58%—The cross-examination style of debate is better training for the debater and is more interesting to the audience than the orthodox style (#7)

5%—The orthodox style of debate is better training for the debater and is more interesting to the audience than the cross-examination style (#47)

61%—Wins and losses should be de-emphasized in favor of a system of quality rating (#19)

Statements unfavorable to debate:

- 10%—Debate is not conducive to honest thinking (#11)
- 11%—Debaters manufacture evidence—have little regard for the actual facts (#9)
- 18%—Debaters and coaches strive to win at any cost (#6)
- 21%—Debaters too often indulge in trickery and the twisting of evidence to serve their purposes (#60)
- 29%—Preparation too often consists of memorizing discussion previously written by the coach or some "shark" (#30)
- 34%—Debaters all too frequently look upon debate merely as a game—intellectual sport, and have little interest in presenting a practical solution to the problem at hand (#12)
- 36%—The policy of training a few to be stars rather than training many for active participation cannot be condoned as sound educational practice (#52)
- 39%—Coaches are frequently guilty of dictating the team's case (#40)
- 69%—Debate needs coaches with better training and a more wholesome philosophy of debate (#22)

CONCLUSIONS

It must be remembered that this is a study of attitude toward debate, not on the part of speech teachers and debate coaches, but rather, on the part of school and college administrators, officials, and teachers in related subject matter areas.

It should be noted, too, that a proportionately larger sampling of Pennsylvania school teachers and administrators than college teachers and administrators was undertaken. In Pennsylvania questionnaires were sent to 100% of the county superintendents and to approx-

TABLE III
RATINGS OF SIXTY ATTITUDINAL STATEMENTS BY CLASSIFIED GROUPS

Statement No.	YY (58)	YN (60)	NY (14)	NN (37)	T (169)	ST (17)	SA (79)	CT (39)	CA (35)	T (170)	ST %	SA %	CT %	CA %	T %
1	30	26	9	12	77	11	36	13	17	77	64	45	33	48	45
2	18	18	5	9	50	8	32	4	6	50	47	40	10	17	29
3	3	1	3	7	14	0	9	3	2	14	00	11	07	05	08
4	10	14	5	13	42	2	21	13	6	42	11	26	33	17	24
5	16	21	6	7	50	2	20	15	13	50	11	25	38	37	29
6	9	12	1	10	32	3	15	9	5	32	17	18	23	14	18
7	33	34	11	21	99	14	47	26	12	99	82	59	66	34	58
8	12	12	4	9	37	4	17	9	7	37	23	21	23	20	21
9	2	9	3	6	20	3	7	7	3	20	17	08	17	08	11
10	29	29	8	18	84	7	41	18	18	84	41	51	46	51	49
11	4	9	1	4	18	1	7	9	1	18	05	08	23	02	10
12	18	25	4	12	59	4	27	20	8	59	23	34	51	22	34
13	13	8	3	5	30	3	14	12	1	30	17	17	30	02	17
14	17	17	3	10	47	6	24	11	6	47	35	30	28	17	27
15	45	42	10	23	120	14	58	20	28	120	82	73	51	80	70
16	5	6	2	2	15	0	5	5	4	15	00	07	12	11	08
17	17	21	5	10	53	5	27	13	8	53	29	34	33	22	31
18	28	9	4	8	49	7	19	12	11	49	41	24	30	31	28
19	34	37	10	23	104	15	53	20	16	104	88	67	51	45	61
20	32	30	6	21	89	7	42	20	20	89	41	53	51	57	52
21	2	0	1	2	5	1	2	2	0	5	05	02	05	00	02
22	38	45	12	23	118	12	58	27	21	118	70	73	69	60	69
23	16	11	2	8	37	6	23	4	4	37	35	29	10	11	21
24	9	4	2	6	21	1	8	7	5	21	05	10	17	14	12
25	52	51	10	28	141	14	68	29	30	141	82	86	74	85	82
26	16	15	3	11	45	4	24	10	7	45	23	30	25	20	26
27	50	48	12	29	139	16	67	30	26	139	94	84	76	74	81
28	4	7	3	7	21	3	10	5	3	21	17	12	12	08	12
29	2	2	0	2	6	0	5	1	0	6	00	06	02	00	03
30	17	19	6	8	50	6	26	9	9	50	35	32	23	25	29
31	36	30	7	14	87	12	48	18	9	87	70	60	46	25	51
32	33	28	5	20	86	9	49	10	18	86	52	62	25	51	50
33	24	19	6	10	59	9	32	7	11	59	52	40	17	31	34
34	2	6	2	2	12	1	4	5	2	12	05	05	12	05	07
35	38	33	7	18	96	10	50	18	18	96	58	63	46	51	56
36	9	6	3	7	25	2	11	8	4	25	11	13	20	11	14
37	8	6	2	8	24	3	10	9	2	24	17	12	23	05	14
38	9	13	3	12	37	4	14	12	7	37	23	17	30	20	21
39	2	2	2	1	7	1	3	3	0	7	05	03	07	00	04
40	27	22	5	13	67	5	34	16	12	67	29	43	41	34	39
41	50	46	9	29	134	14	69	26	25	134	82	87	66	71	78
42	48	44	8	23	123	8	57	31	27	123	47	72	79	77	72
43	30	23	9	10	72	8	34	17	13	72	47	43	43	37	42
44	3	1	1	0	5	2	2	1	0	5	11	02	02	00	02
45	48	47	11	24	130	13	68	24	25	130	76	86	61	71	76
46	38	32	10	14	94	12	37	24	21	94	70	46	61	60	55
47	7	1	0	1	9	1	5	1	2	9	05	06	02	05	05
48	1	1	0	1	3	0	2	1	0	3	00	02	02	00	01
49	0	1	1	2	4	0	2	2	0	4	00	02	05	00	02
50	20	12	1	8	41	6	20	5	10	41	35	25	12	28	24
51	45	30	10	22	107	13	54	21	19	107	76	68	53	54	62
52	25	22	6	9	62	8	26	17	11	62	47	32	43	31	36
53	19	17	6	6	48	6	23	11	8	48	35	29	28	22	28
54	19	10	2	11	42	3	15	9	15	42	17	18	23	42	24
55	50	43	9	23	125	14	64	24	23	125	82	81	61	65	73
56	21	16	6	11	54	6	29	14	5	54	35	36	35	14	31
57	6	1	1	3	11	3	4	2	2	11	17	05	05	05	06
58	41	36	8	19	104	10	56	17	21	104	58	70	43	60	61
59	9	7	1	5	22	1	10	10	1	22	05	12	25	02	12
60	15	12	3	6	36	5	16	10	5	36	29	20	25	14	21

YY—Debate: Yes; Coach: Yes

YN—Debate: Yes; Coach: No

NY—Debate: No; Coach: Yes

NN—Debate: No; Coach: No

ST—School Teacher

SA—School Administrator

CT—College Teacher

CA—College Administrator

Numerals in parentheses represent the total number of individuals in each classification.

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE RANK BY GROUPS FOR SIXTY ATTITUDINAL STATEMENTS

T %	Statement					Statement					Statement				
	No.	ST	SA	CT	CA	No.	ST	SA	CT	CA	No.	ST	SA	CT	CA
45	+1*	1	3	4	2	-21	1	2	1	3	41	2	1	4	3
29	+2	1	2	4	3	-22	2	1	3	4	+42	4	3	1	2
08	-3	4	1	2	3	+23	1	2	4	3	+43	1	2	2	3
24	-4	4	2	1	3	-24	4	3	1	2	+44	1	2	2	3
29	5	4	3	1	2	25	3	1	4	2	+45	2	1	4	3
18	-6	3	2	1	4	26	3	1	2	4	46	1	4	2	3
58	7	1	3	2	4	+27	1	2	3	4	47	2	1	3	2
21	8	1	2	1	3	-28	1	2	2	3	-48	2	1	1	2
11	-9	1	2	1	2	-29	3	1	2	3	-49	3	2	1	3
49	10	3	1	2	1	-30	1	2	4	3	+50	1	3	4	2
10	-11	3	2	1	4	+31	1	2	3	4	+51	1	2	4	3
34	-12	3	2	1	4	+32	2	1	4	3	-52	1	3	2	4
17	-13	2	2	1	3	33	1	2	4	3	-53	1	2	3	4
27	-14	1	2	3	4	34	2	2	1	2	+54	4	3	2	1
70	+15	1	3	4	2	+35	2	1	4	3	55	1	2	4	3
08	16	4	3	1	2	-36	3	2	1	3	56	2	1	2	3
31	17	3	1	2	4	-37	2	3	1	4	57	1	2	2	2
28	18	1	4	3	2	-38	2	4	1	3	+58	3	1	4	2
61	19	1	2	3	4	-39	2	3	1	4	-59	3	2	1	4
52	20	4	2	3	1	-40	4	1	2	3	-60	1	3	2	4

+ most favorable statements

— most unfavorable statements

* For example, the table shows that for statement #1 the greatest percentage of checks was assigned by the school teachers, followed by the college administrators, school administrators, and college teachers in that order.

imately 10% each of the district superintendents and the supervising principals, whereas one or more college teachers or administrators in approximately 10% of our colleges and universities received the questionnaires.

While we present our conclusions with a considerable degree of modesty, especially since the sampling in the college group was comparatively small, nevertheless certain fairly pronounced trends were detected.

1. Considerably more colleges than Pennsylvania high schools sponsor debate. Over 62% of the high schools and less than 8% of the colleges fail to sponsor debate. The major reasons for this failure are: lack of interest, lack of time, and lack of capable coaching.
2. There is a definite tendency for those without debate experience and without coaching experience to check the attitudinal statements favorable to debate less frequently than those with debate and/or coaching experience. This was true, for instance, with statements number 1, 2, 15, 42, 44, 45, 58, and especially 31, 35, and 43. A notable exception was number 54, which, interest-

ingly enough, reads: "Most debaters, I believe, construct their own cases and write their own speeches."

3. As to the attitudinal statements unfavorable to debate this same group checked some more frequently (numbers 4, 6, 9, 21, 24, 28, 29, 36, 38) and some less frequently (numbers 22, 30, 37, 39, 40, 52, 53, 60), in approximately the same ratio, than did those with debate and/or coaching experience.
4. By combining the percentages of Tables I and II, we find that the college administrators, as a group, are most strongly favorable to debate, while the college teachers are most strongly opposed.
5. On the basis of percentage rank by groups for 16 statements most favorable to debate and 25 most opposed, as indicated in Table IV, the favorable statements were checked most frequently in the following group order: school teachers, school administrators, college administrators, and college teachers, while the unfavorable statements were checked least frequently, by groups, in this order: college administrators, school teachers, school administrators, and college teachers.
6. On the basis of the numerous "free" statements of attitude submitted under item 7 of the questionnaire, the college and the school administrators were most complimen-

tary and the college teachers the most uncomplimentary.

7. Combining the results as presented in Tables I, II, III, and IV, it would appear that the college administrators expressed the most favorable attitude toward debate, followed by the school teachers, with the school administrators a very close third, and the college teachers definitely last.
8. Since our *major* purpose in this study was not to compare the status of debate in Pennsylvania high schools with that in colleges, or to compare the attitudes of those lacking debate and coaching experience with those possessing such experience, or to compare the attitudes of the teachers and administrators as groups, but rather to discover the attitude of these particular groups as a whole, the following are, perhaps, our most important conclusions:
 - a. According to the "general" attitude scale (Tables I and II), approximately 60% are strongly favorable to debate and only 2% strongly opposed.
 - b. According to the "free" statements of attitude (Item 7 of the questionnaire) many statements of warm praise were balanced by numerous statements of severe criticism, although the former outnumbered the latter almost two to one.
 - c. According to the attitude expressed with regard to the sixty "specific" attitudinal statements, many of the statements favorable to debate were checked frequently, indicating a high regard for debate in these particular respects; especially was this true of statements number 1, 51, 42, 58, and 2; but, likewise, many of the extremely unfavorable statements were checked repeatedly, indicating disapproval of debate in these respects, such as statements 22, 40, 52, 12, 30, 60, and 6. Therefore, it appears that the general attitude toward debate is one of con-

siderable approbation, while on the basis of specific attitudes many are extremely favorable and many, although appreciably fewer, severely critical.

Any ultimate conclusions, perhaps, at which one might arrive will depend, no doubt, upon one's interpretation of the statistics. That is to say, for instance, when is 25% a high and when a low percentage? (If only 25% of the people should believe "A" to be honest, that would, by most, be considered a small percentage; whereas if 25% thought "A" to be a liar, that would in all probability be considered a very high percentage by most. If 25% called him a murderer, the percentage would seem even higher.) It is difficult, therefore, to be sure how some might interpret the statistics of this study; however, it seems reasonable to assume that when as many teachers and administrators as do feel (1) that debate coaches need better training and a more wholesome philosophy of debate, (2) that there is an over-emphasis on tournaments and winning, (3) that the cross-examination style of debate is better training and more interesting than the orthodox style, (4) that there should be a greater spread of participation, (5) that debaters don't write their own speeches, (6) that coaches dictate the cases, (7) that debaters are arbitrarily assigned to sides, and (8) that debaters lack sincerity and honesty, it is time that we debate coaches start paying attention.

A SPEAKERS' BUREAU FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Jack B. Simpson

AS educators of modern youth, teachers are faced with the task of providing today's students with a practical education which will function in everyday living. For many of America's pupils the high school is a terminal institution where the acquisition of experiences, skills, and information aids its graduates in earning a living and adjusting to society.

Speech training is a vital part of the personal development of the individual. Any course offered in the speech field should serve the general educational aims of helping the pupil adapt to his social environment, serve society, enjoy life, increase his capacity to earn a livelihood, and develop his personality. The old idea that effective speech was an artistic achievement to be cultivated for its own sake has been supplemented by the desire to teach speech as a means of communicating information and of influencing conduct.

Many individuals today have asked why such an emphasis has suddenly been placed on speech education. At the beginning of this century, it was uncommon for large segments of the population to be reached by public speaking. The great orators of that day spoke to relatively few of the populace even if they took to the speaker's platform for the major portion of their lives. Now it is rare when a speaker using the radio does not reach several millions of his fellows. Television, motion pictures, and the radio have brought the voices of world leaders to the four corners of the earth.

Since people now have a greater opportunity to be well informed, speech has a greater role to play than ever before. The ability to speak well helps citizens solve problems through discussion and permits leaders to present issues to the voters with a greater degree of clarity. Citizens of our society must be able to communicate effectively; high school students should achieve proficiency in speech skills if they are to meet the challenge of the various situations in which they may be called upon to speak before others.

Although the speech class is one kind of laboratory wherein the students may obtain basic training in public speaking, speech teachers of the Arlington County, Virginia, schools have realized that additional training is desirable for complete development of public speakers. Motivated by this idea, the speech department has sought means of providing speaking engagements within the community.

There are many ways to establish relations with the community. The teachers may act as speakers, chairmen, masters of ceremonies, or act in plays. Students may participate in forums, give plays, or participate in radio plays dealing with some community problem. Such activities may be developed once the initial contact between the school and the community has been established. Arlington teachers have concluded that the best approach to such a program is through public speaking situations provided by community business, professional, religious, service, and educational organizations.

One of the best vehicles for carrying

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the speech program into the community is the Speakers' Bureau. This organization, both social and academic, is composed of a group of students working together in the community laboratory learning how to think and speak before an audience. The objectives of the Bureau should be to develop in its members the art of effective speech, to have them take a rightful place in community activities, to improve school-community relations, and to present programs at regular Bureau meetings designed to improve speech skills. Members of the Bureau should be chosen from the student body on the basis of competitive speaking on subjects of their own choice. The criteria for judging speakers should be the same for all grade levels. Such points as content and organization of material, use of language, ability to hold an audience, poise, appearance, enunciation, projection, and tone quality should be included on the rating sheet. Each group of teachers contemplating formation of a Bureau may decide which bases for judgment would be most suitable for their particular groups. The number of students chosen for the Bureau would depend upon the potential speaking engagements which the community might support.

For those students who qualify, it is suggested that a certificate of membership be given at the end of one year's successful membership. The design of this certificate could be decided upon by collaboration between the Speech and Art Departments within the school.

No charges should be made for the services of the Bureau, but organizations wishing speakers should be requested to provide transportation to and from the engagement. The teacher sponsor, duly qualified in speech instruction, should act as liaison agent between the school and the community. Every effort should be made to get at least two

weeks' notice prior to the date of any speaking engagement in order to allow the students time to prepare their talks, deliver them before the Bureau members, and receive the benefit of their criticism. This will also allow time for notification of the proposed talk to be sent to the local newspapers.

The organization of the Bureau should be constructed on the framework of a constitution providing officers, committees, rules for membership, travel, and other stipulations. The new organization should be given a name, such as Speakers' Bureau, prefixed by the name of the school, and should have as sponsor a speech teacher with broad training and special ability in public speaking, oral interpretation, and dramatics. In the event that no one person is available who possesses all the qualifications, the founders of the Bureau should obtain the help of other speech teachers who, with their special talents, can assist the students in oral interpretation and dramatics. The sponsor should keep on file notes from parents of participants granting permission for students to take an active part in the organization.

In forming plans for a Bureau in a school system, consideration should be given to teachers in the lower grades who, through their efforts, would insure success of the senior high school organization. The program must commence in the elementary school, continue through the junior high school, and finally reach its conclusion on the secondary level in the senior high school. Basic speaking courses begun and practiced in the lower grades will prepare pupils in junior high school for inter-school speaking engagements. With the promotion of trained speakers into the senior high school, speaking engagements will then be provided not only between schools but within the community as well.

Membership in Speakers' Bureaus in the junior high schools would automatically recommend those students for the senior high school Bureau provided each organization was founded along similar lines.

One of the best ways to introduce the new organization to the public is through a reception. Advance publicity should be given the affair through the school and local newspapers, and letters should be written inviting representatives from various civic groups to attend the reception at the school. In drawing up a list of clubs to invite, emphasis should rest upon those organizations which might provide opportunities for functional speech experience. A program should be planned which would provide a means for community leaders to meet the members of the Bureau and hear them speak. It is suggested that a brochure be provided each guest announcing the topics on which students are prepared to speak or give plays or readings. In drafting the letter of invitation, sufficient information about the Bureau should be included to arouse the curiosity of the prospective guest.

Another method of creating interest in the Bureau is for student members to visit community clubs introducing the purposes of the Bureau and soliciting help in providing engagements.

In sending students into the community, it is recommended that a Bureau critic accompany each speaker. The critic on the engagement should report to the Bureau at its next meeting recommending ways in which the speaker or group might improve. The speaker should, also, upon his arrival at the engagement, present a postal card to the chairman for his criticism of the talk. The sponsor might follow up each talk by telephoning the chairman of the civic organization to ascertain the impression the student speaker has made

on his audience. Such techniques further good public relations between the school and the community groups which, in turn, provide the material necessary to continued speech learning. Nearly every type of talent and interest will be served by real audience situations and high school youth will be assuming a place of importance in the life of the community.

Care must be exercised by the sponsor to see that special interest groups do not use the Speakers' Bureau to further minority viewpoints. The selfish desire of certain groups and individuals to secure personal advancement through exploitation of student speakers must be recognized and dealt with diplomatically.

Once having ascertained community interest in a Speakers' Bureau, chosen members, and established a constitution, it remains for the sponsor to determine when and where the organization will meet. In the event that the high school in which the Bureau is formed has a club program, the Bureau could hold its regular meetings during the time set aside for club activities. A brief business meeting could be followed by planned programs designed to further the speech education of the members. Such activities as discussions, debates, and talks will stimulate the group to wish to expound their ideas to the community.

Working with the idea of taking the student out of the spectator class and making him a player in the game of life, the Washington-Lee High School of Arlington has achieved a considerable degree of success with its Speakers' Bureau. The school's speech teachers have helped Bureau members learn to express with force and poise their ideas before community groups. The community has reacted with enthusiasm to the new organization and has responded to the call for speaking situations.

Mutual exchange of services between the school and the community has had beneficial results. Members of the community have acquired a more widespread interest in school activities and teenagers, and the school has gained an additional speech laboratory where students have put classroom lessons to practical use.

Since the Washington-Lee Speakers' Bureau's inception in September, 1951, it has fulfilled successfully approximately forty engagements. Students have addressed Parent-Teachers organizations, church groups, the American Association of University Women, American

Library Association, Business and Professional Men's and Women's Clubs, and other civic and educational groups. The subjects of these addresses have included support of the Community Chest, civil defense, democracy, teenage problems in the modern world, school libraries, and the United Nations.

As Arlington's teachers have utilized the community's learning situations so can the resourceful teachers in other secondary schools develop these possibilities in their own communities. Speakers' Bureaus on the high school level can succeed in developing appreciation of the place of speech in today's curriculum.

LET'S NOT EXPLOIT SPEAKERS

William S. Tacey

HIGH school speech students are much in demand for appearances before adult audiences. In many communities they appear at least annually before service clubs, fraternal groups, labor unions, church organizations, and just "meetings." Sometimes they are scheduled weeks and months in advance. At other times they are called on short notice because of last minute "regrets" sent by some out-of-town speaker. Frequently student speakers are found serving as spell-binders in the interests of school or community bond issues, scrap drives, money-raising enterprises, such as Red Cross or Salvation Army or for entertainments. Radio stations welcome student participation on sustaining programs and then the listening audience is treated to a sample of youth's views as debaters or discussants wrestle with weighty problems. Frequently successful high school plays are taken on tour and nearby townspeople have a chance to observe their neighbors' theatrical talents. Adult audiences welcome the aspiring students' speaking, not alone because their own sons and daughters are performing and causing parental chests to swell with pride, but because frequently the programs provided are worthwhile, interesting, and informative. The high school student frequently brings a fresh viewpoint, a youthful exuberance, and often a naive approach that is lacking in the more sophisticated speaker.

The high school boy or girl who is well motivated in learning to speak

more effectively is always eager to appear before adult audiences. If he has done tournament debating he has found vacant seats uninspiring. Speech classes frequently provide hypercritical listeners. By contrast the adult audience is sympathetic and appreciative. It is with relish that the student appears before adult groups after his first timorous attempts. Perhaps for the first time he has a chance to meet adults on their own level. And he relishes it. He meets the local judges, the mayor, local church and labor leaders, industrialists, and merchants. For the teenager it is a real thrill. In order to receive the reward of a good audience he is willing to work very hard in preparation.

The speech teacher has in the community speaking program a valuable tool. As a device for encouraging boys and girls to do superior work it has few equals. Students learn that only an excellent speech can persuade donors to go to the blood bank, that only careful research and a well-developed case can win audience votes in a closely contested debate, that only a flawlessly produced play will earn repeat engagements on the road. And loyal "kids" that they are, they want to do their best for their teacher and school. As a result, they are willing to spend much time in study and practice in order to excel. Even contests can offer little more as a means to stimulate study.

Audience appearances are useful to the teacher and school in building good public relations. Perhaps for the first time adults who listen to a group of student speakers are aware that the high school teaches more than music

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or athletics. Perhaps they are surprised to learn that the same school has students who don't appear to be rowdies or potential "Joe Colleges." As they watch student speakers make successful pleas for community projects the tax-payers begin to feel that they are getting their money's worth. The speech teacher who usually accompanies his pupils finds that people of the community look upon him with more favor. After a few years of successful appearances before all sorts of audiences he finds that he is accepted as a respected community leader too.

Like many profitable enterprises there are many opportunities for mistakes which can bring harm to the participants. The teacher who fails to plan his schedule can easily find himself away from home seven evenings per week for months at a time. Saturdays and Sundays, too, become just additional school days. Discrimination in the acceptance of invitations, spacing of public appearances throughout the entire year, enlistment of aid of one's fellow teachers, and delegation of responsibility to the ablest students can all help to make the teacher's extra-curricular load tolerable. Conscientious teachers will do well to see that administrators and school boards understand that adequate pay or lightening of classroom schedules are expected in order to carry on a community speech program.

Frequently a teacher is tempted to overlook the student's best interests and assign him engagements which will take too much of his time, endanger his health, or show that he is more favored than other able speakers. School social events, examination weeks, and especially heavy assignments in certain departments must all be taken into account in making up speaking schedules. Low grades at the end of a report

period may mean no speaking engagements until classwork improves. Too many appearances which cut into sleeping times or failure to limit the load to a child's physical capacity may affect his health. Advice of the school nurse or student counselor may help in decision-making. Even though an outstanding speaker has been requested for an "important meeting" the teacher is wise who says no, when he feels that the student will be harmed by keeping the date, or that another boy or girl is deserving of a turn. Of course no teacher with a really professional viewpoint will be guilty of using his students for the purpose of promoting his own interests at their expense whether it be in trying for a promotion, a raise, a new job, or in writing a master's thesis.

Audiences are apt to exploit speakers thoughtlessly or even intentionally. It is not unusual for a program chairman to say that a dinner meeting is to be held at 6:30 p.m. and that the speakers should report at 8:00 p.m. Polite but firm insistence by the teacher can result in the students being invited to dinner too. A suggestion that an extra quarter be added to the price of the meal can quickly show how the cost may be funded. The suggestion that it is always "the custom" for speakers to eat at the meeting can be persuasive also.

Men and women who travel on an expense account or with their own adequate funds sometimes forget that teenagers' allowances are frequently small and that a thirty-cent bus fare two or three times a week can be a major item. For that reason a hint that transportation to and from the meeting will be needed is recommended. Frequently a member of the audience will volunteer the services of his car. Sometimes a cab is called with the organization paying the fare, or money for

bus fares may be taken from the treasury. At times some especially generous group may suggest a flat fee to be distributed as the teacher and pupils see fit. Gifts of handkerchiefs, neckties, socks, or samples of some local firm's products are not uncommon. Payment for services rendered will probably not be the aim but rather reimbursement for expenses incurred. At any rate, if the students feel that public appearances will not be costly of money, as well as time, they will more contentedly participate and fewer parental complaints will result.

Should speech students help private enterprises? Frequently a store needs someone to ballyhoo merchandise, or

a private commercial exhibitor wants a lecturer. Such requests may be treated as any other call for part-time employees, such as the post office or department store calls for rush season help. The speech teacher may recommend a student but the bargaining will be between employer and employee. Community custom will help the proper school officials decide whether the school's star speakers will assist in political campaigns, religious promotions, or other controversial enterprises. One does well to remember that no student should ever become the pawn of either school or community. His development as an individual is the primary "yardstick" in gaining for him opportunities for public speaking engagements.

SOCIAL SKILLS AS AN INSTRUMENT FOR SPEECH THERAPY

Harriet M. Dunn

INTRODUCTION

IN the daily lives of most individuals numerous social situations require the use of speech. Greetings, introductions, invitations, questions, directions, and casual conversation are familiar human experiences. Adequate participation in such social situations requires a modicum of skills in the use of spoken language.

Unfortunately, many persons do not have adequate skills, but they live surrounded by social situations which require speech. Forced to react, they substitute other behavior patterns; they may avoid such situations, and simply accept exclusion from social groups. Thus they have a measure of freedom from the need to use speech and do not develop or, perhaps, lose much of the common give-and-take of everyday living.

Speech re-education for such persons must go beyond the making of phonetically accurate sounds and drill upon isolated words and unrelated sentences. Its principal aim must be the development of acceptable speech for a definite purpose: participation in everyday life. The use of conventional conversation patterns as drill material allows learning to take place against a realistic background. The associations built up around these stimuli can be transferred to situations outside the classroom. This approach permits the grouping of individuals according to age and ability

rather than disorder. Adaptation of these patterns to various age levels is comparatively simple. The following examples describe the successful use of such lesson plans with children of different ages who have been retarded in speech development and need speech re-education.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

To the speech clinic come many children whose ability to use speech has not appeared by the time a child is normally expected to be using short sentences, naming and asking for food and other objects. In many cases the parents have not been sufficiently concerned to seek help from a speech therapist until the child fails in specific situations to measure up to the speech abilities of other children in the family or community. The child is labeled "different," becomes a "problem," and is brought to the speech clinic to get "normal speech."

Whenever possible, causes for the retardation of speech development are determined. Whatever the cause—aphasia, severe loss of hearing, mental retardation, cerebral palsy, cleft palate, malnutrition, severe illness, or so-called psychological trauma—the common factors are the absence of speech for communication and the need for diagnostic teaching to determine for each child the possibility of initiating speech.

In the world of words in which these small children of two to five years live many expressions are used consistently each day, such as:

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for you	doggie or bow wow
hello	time to eat
bye or bye bye	time to get up
go in the car	time to go to bed, etc.
please	yes
thank you	no
go home	kitty
sh! or hush!	up or down

Exposing the children to these expressions in carefully controlled situations, where the use of one expression brings about a desirable end-result, helps to develop a readiness for speech.

Three-year-old Reggie, for example, has a severe hearing loss. In addition, the use of his hands has been limited by cerebral palsy. On one of his first clinical visits he was given a "play-skool toy" so constructed that when one colored peg was pounded hard by a little wooden hammer another colored peg was pushed out and fell onto the table. Reggie needed help in holding the hammer and directing blows on the peg. As each peg fell out the therapist tilted Reggie's face to hers and said "Wheel!" She smiled with approval of his ability and showed surprise at the emerging peg. After the procedure had been repeated again and again Reggie began to look up in expectation of the praise. Soon his lips would close and open, and at the same time a huge smile would spread over his face in imitation of the expressions of the therapist's face. No count was kept of the innumerable repetitions of poundings by Reggie and exclamations by the speech therapist, but after many repetitions Reggie looked up, smiled broadly and said "Wheel!" A pat on the shoulder, a smile, a "Good boy!" "That is fine, Reggie, do it again," interpreted to him the pleasure of the therapist and he repeated his achievement. Communication through speech had been established; and Reggie seemed to be aware and take pleasure in

the new way of relating himself to the person with whom he was playing.

At his second visit to the clinic Reggie was taken to the weekly tea party where four more pre-schoolers had gathered to serve milk and cookies to each other, their mothers, and the staff members. That day Susan, who has cerebral palsy and cannot yet walk alone, was sitting at the head of the table; she was hostess for the day and it was "her party."

"Will you come to my party?" asked Susan of each child and adult in turn. Answers varied according to ability from a smile and a move toward a chair to "Yes I'd like to." When all were seated Susan asked Mary to pass the napkins; Mary, who was learning to use her new braces, walked alone around the table presenting each guest with a napkin as she looked up with a smile said, "For you." Again, answers varied from a smile and nod to a "thank you." Then Susan passed the milk, announcing as she did so, "For Mommy," "For Mary," "For Reggie," "For Mary's Mommy," and ending with "Mine," as she filled a small blue cup. In like manner Martha was asked to pass the cookies, and when everyone had been served all eyes were turned to the head of the table where Susan as hostess began to eat first.

Back of this pleasant tea party were many hours of practice in the clinic and at home on these social patterns. First, in the clinic classes each pattern was developed in a carefully controlled situation where motivation was high and participation desirable. Then the mother, who accompanied the child and sat in on most of the teaching, was instructed on how to arrange similar situations at home.

Many months ago Susan and her mother had come to the clinic for their first lesson. On that day a collection of small bright-colored toys was placed be-

fore the child. As she reached for one, the therapist picked it up, handed it to her and said, "For you"; later in the lesson the child was helped by her mother to return the toys one by one, saying to the therapist as her mother directed her hand, "For you." As the child began to imitate the movements of the therapist and act independently of her mother's direction, her lips began to move; often she nodded her head in the direction of the therapist who reached for the toy and said, "Thank you." Any meaningful sound made by the child was accepted as speech; no attempt at phonetic accuracy was made. A change of toys, the substitution of pictures, small pieces of cookies or mints, gave enough variety to the activity to hold attention easily. Little by little the sounds uttered by Susan more nearly approached intelligible speech and each time were accepted with praise such as a smile, or a pat on the shoulder. By observing and participating, Susan's mother became familiar with the activity so that she could devise ways to use it at home within the family unit. Thus began for one child the use of speech in the give-and-take of everyday living.

Throughout a long period of training the speech therapist and the mother must work together toward further development of a desire to speak and the establishment of the more simple patterns. Only after a number of patterns have been well established and used as purposeful speech does the therapist begin to work for phonetic accuracy. In other words, the child attains such a degree of speech readiness that his need to be understood begins to take precedence over the need to speak. No special point of demarcation can be established; the two processes merge into one.

Disorders of language are not limited to pre-school children. Some older chil-

dren with severe articulatory disorders find the so-called normal construction and sequence of words in a sentence difficult to use. Their speech sounds much like that of a foreigner learning English; verbs and nouns are transposed, the past tense is ignored, negatives are formed with "no" before the verb or preposition, articles are omitted, or even onomatopoeic words are coined. Such misconstruction with an articulatory disorder superimposed upon it makes a strange pattern, almost impossible to understand.

The following examples are from recordings of such children: "Me no want ——" "David run table" "Her birdie see" "Carolyn, giddyap, giddyap not got" (meaning Carolyn does not have a horse) "Him no do."

Before drill for phonetic accuracy can be attempted a feeling for appropriate construction must be built up within the child. This process may be long, representing many class hours of drill in listening and responding.

For example, the therapist may begin by placing a tray of small toys or objects before the children and saying, "Who wants a top?" in order to bring out the simple response, "I do." From there it is a tremendous step to, "Who closed the door?" "I did," and "Who found a penny?" "I did." A really high state of development has been reached when a sequence like the following can take place: the therapist rings a bell; the child chosen to respond turns to his classmates and says, "I heard a bell," to which the second child answers, "I did too."

Again the therapist must know when speech readiness has been established sufficiently well to begin work on phonetic accuracy. Drill on specific sounds may be based upon words and phrases present in the patterns already learned.

Slight change in drill materials is necessary to allow Donna, who substitutes T for S, to respond with, "Yes I do," to the therapist's question, "Do you have a top?"; or in a game of looking and seeing, to allow David, who substitutes W for R, to answer, "No I heard a bell," to the therapist's question, "Did you see a horse?" Little by little these children progress in the building of a vocabulary, the acquisition of correct sounds, and the formulation of acceptably constructed sentences.

STRIVING TOWARD PHONETIC ACCURACY

Children who have shown normal development in language, but have sound substitutions, additions, omissions, and distortions are often brought by the parents to the speech clinic to be taught to "talk right." The parent means that he wants his child to be understood by the children and adults whom he has to meet daily in speaking situations. The child may be unable to make his desires understood; perhaps he is being ridiculed by his playmates, or even excluded from school because he cannot participate in the speaking situations of everyday life. He stands out among the children of his family or his community and school as being "different."

To the speech therapist, teaching the child to "talk right" does not mean merely developing on a parlor trick level the skill to pronounce correctly sounds in isolation and in unrelated words. It means rather teaching sounds for the purpose of incorporating them in word sentences and phrases which have meaning against a realistic background.

Once a child is able to make a sound in isolation he can put it into a word response to be used over and over as a drill. The various responses can be combined in a conversation to be used for drill material for an individual or

group lesson on any specific sound or combination of sounds. For example: in a group class Bobby needs to practice R sounds and Jack K and G sounds.

Jack: Come on Bobby, let's go.

Bobby: Where?

Jack: To Kay's house.

Bobby: I'm ready.

Jack: OK. Do you have your wagon?

Bobby: It's over there.

Jack: I'll call Tom and we'll go.

Other children in the class may act as critics to evaluate their work; from this they receive training in listening and discrimination in expressing their opinions.

An introduction gives an opportunity to practice on the difficult combination of TH—S—Z sounds (this is)—

"Mother this is my friend, Tom."

"Mother this is my teacher, Miss _____."

For the shy child who has withdrawn from speaking situations an introduction may have become a terrifying experience; he may have avoided such situations until he really does not know how to make people acquainted. Practice in the classroom until the child feels familiar in such a background enables him to transfer new skills to real life situations.

The giving and gracious receiving of compliments has become a skill necessary to most people. For example:

a. I like your dress, Miss Eddy.

b. Thank you, Betty, I like it too.

Practice on L and TH sounds can be provided, but more important, a shy child, inclined to withdraw, may learn how to "break silence" with a kind and gracious word. Also learning the reply, "I like it too," can prevent the confusion and embarrassment often expressed in such a reply as "this old thing!" Behavior and speech developed together against a real background can be more

easily transferred to similar situations in everyday life.

Lesson plans may be built upon the social patterns used daily in the homes of the children. The following story of a speech lesson transferred from the classroom to the home shows what can be done.

Alice S., a ten-year-old with a severe articulatory disorder, had been working on S sounds at the clinic. Each week her mother observed the lesson and participated for part of the period in order to be able to work with Alice at home. One day Mrs. S. watched Alice share pictures of food with her classmates as she said to each in turn, "Will you have some ——?" Mrs. S. was asked to devise a way for Alice to practice this phrase among the members of her family.

With great pride Mrs. S. reported the next week, "We used to put our dessert right on our dinner plates. Now we have clean plates for dessert, and Alice serves each member of the family just as she did in school, and says, 'Will you have some ——?' With our big family she gets a heap of practice."

The S. family was not only large but the members were hard-working and accustomed to making every penny count; to them time was valuable in the struggle for necessities. Using special plates would formerly have been considered an unnecessary expense. Now in

the S. family the extra time and expense of preparing the dessert, and the added work of dishwashing had become the family's contribution to real situations in which Alice could practice language improvement.

CONCLUSIONS

Remembering that the aim of the speech therapist is to train the child with a disorder of speech to take part in the speaking world we may conclude:

1. Drill for development of speech should be built upon real responses which later can be used by the child outside the classroom.
2. Such drills have been shown to provide motivation for participation in two-way communication.
3. Specialized drill on a specific sound may be worked out by the use of a social pattern.
4. Transfer can be made quickly and easily from the classroom drill on social patterns to daily use at home and in the community.
5. A child who can participate with a fair degree of success in a social situation, if only with a one or two word response, exhibits a feeling of pleasure and gratifies his parents by his approach to "normality."
6. He gratifies his parents and also the speech therapist who desires that he learn not only how to make correct sounds but how to use them in communication.

A NEW EMPHASIS IN TEACHING PUBLIC SPEAKING

Clair R. Henderlinder and Eugene E. White

ACCORDING to the typical college catalog, the primary objective of the beginning course in public speaking is "to develop the student's ability to prepare and deliver speeches of various types." The pedagogy almost exclusively followed in such a course is to have the student prepare a number of short speeches, deliver them to the classroom audience, and receive from his teacher critical evaluations of these performances. A course objective so stated is artistic rather than pragmatic; a course so conducted tends to be remote and sterile rather than dynamic and vital. Our course descriptions should make clear that our primary goal is to prepare students for performances in *real-life situations*. Although admittedly difficult, we should plan and conduct our courses so that students receive the most practical training possible. If our students are to be prepared to face "flesh and blood" audiences in dynamic social situations, we must overcome the atmosphere of intellectual and emotional vacuity usually presented by a "captive" student audience in a classroom situation. Unfortunately, many of us who teach public speaking may have become so remote from current rhetorical practices and so preoccupied with academic duties that we are unable to introduce into our teaching the practicality so necessary in a skills course. This professional shortcoming is, of course, mirrored in the students we train.

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The purpose of this article is to indicate how we may improve our teaching of public speaking by (1) suggesting ways to bring us into closer contact with present-day speaking; and (2) proposing methods for introducing our students to the realities of current speechmaking.

I.

Our contributions as teachers would be enhanced if we made active use of the following four suggestions. (1) We should develop a genuine interest in contemporary speaking. An example of our general apathy toward the speaking done outside the classroom is our indifference toward the needs of adults in industry, the professions, and in business. In his presidential address at the convention of the Speech Association of America in Chicago, December 28, 1951, Wilbur Gilman said:

The third challenge comes from business, industry and the professions. Can we meet their needs? Whereas the educational administrators are sometimes skeptical about what we have to offer because it is not academic enough, the business world is eager for our teaching, providing it is not too academic. . . . A majority of the great industrial firms in this country now have speech training programs. Unfortunately, we have had to be prodded to give our help. We have been so tardy in studying the special speech problems of business and the professions that many institutions have worked out their own methods by trial and error.¹

A recent article by Harold Zelko explains that the present interest in adult training is largely "industry-inspired

¹ Wilbur Gilman, "Unity in Diversity," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 38 (April, 1952), p. 125.

rather than speech-profession sponsored" and that seventy per cent of the instruction is being done by company representatives.² The experience of the authors strongly bears out Zelko's conclusions. In a discipline so intensely practical as ours, it is unfortunate that we teachers have demonstrated little interest in the speech needs of adults.

A further example of our inadequate interest in contemporary speaking is the dearth of scientifically compiled data on pragmatic questions such as the following: Do effective speakers always select a definite, specific, limited purpose before beginning speech preparation? Do they make detailed analyses of audiences and occasions? If so, are the analyses made consciously? If made consciously, what do speakers feel to be most important in audience analysis? Do they deliberately divide their speeches into the recommended tripartite arrangement (introduction, body and conclusion)? If so, which of the three parts do they plan first? Why? What do they think should be accomplished in the introduction? In the conclusion? Great stress is placed upon correct outlining in most texts; but do persuasive speakers uniformly adhere to all or most of the rules? Do successful speakers consistently use a written outline to organize their thinking? Do current practitioners have a clear conception of the various forms of support—their strengths and weaknesses? Or do they rely upon "feeling" the need for a certain type of supporting material? Do they rehearse their speeches? If so, how? Where? When? How often? Why do so many effective present-day speakers read from manuscript when various textbooks tell them not to? What proportion of contemporary performers employ ghost-

writers? Are experienced speakers subject to stage fright? The readers of popular magazines know that Fred Allen, Jack Benny, and Groucho Marx experience rather pronounced nervous disorders before public appearance. Do Dwight Eisenhower, Adlai Stevenson, Walter Reuther, and Robert M. Hutchins? Sufficient interest in contemporary speaking would prompt our scholars to make the investigation necessary to discover the answers to these questions. Possibly the answers might indicate significant variants between common current practice and the theory enunciated in our textbooks and in our teaching.

To become the effective teachers we should be, it is imperative that we develop a keener appreciation of what speakers are actually doing in the field. By developing a strong interest in contemporary rhetorical practices we will recognize more readily that speech is a dynamic skill for active use in a dynamic society; and we will be better equipped to focus our pedagogy on the basic task of helping our students to speak effectively to "flesh-and-blood" audiences. Public speaking must not become a "cultural" subject to be placed on an intellectual shelf at the conclusion of a course.

(2) A genuine interest in contemporary public address will prompt us to read more about modern speaking and to attend more speeches. Since our research scholars are not supplying sufficient data on living speakers,³ we must be alert for helpful, if casual, references outside the publications of our field, i.e., newspapers, news magazines, biographies, etc. Not only should we follow prominent speakers currently in the news, but we should also concern our-

² Harold Zelko, "Adult Speech Training: Challenge to the Speech Profession," *ibid.*, 37 (February, 1951), p. 55-62.

³ For example: only two of the doctoral dissertations summarized in the June and August (1951) and the June (1952) issues of *Speech Monographs* dealt with the rhetorical theory, experiences or practices of a living speaker.

selves with speakers of lesser renown, such as the foreman of Dade County's grand jury, who will speak to the members of the Crime Commission of Greater Miami in the Women's Club Building, and John McDermott, political writer for the *Herald*, who will address the annual News Institute luncheon on the topic, "Reporting from Behind the Iron Curtain." Since the future speaking occasions for our students will most resemble those occasions encountered by the lesser figures, we should accept the responsibility of making contact with such individuals, and of discovering and incorporating their methodologies into our teaching.⁴

Attention should be given the full texts of speeches as reported in the newspapers, the *Congressional Record*, *Vital Speeches*, and in such compilations as the annual Baird series⁵ and the Harding collection.⁶

We might also resolve to attend more speeches in person, listen to them more frequently on radio, and watch them on television. Heavy teaching loads, together with research and other duties, have discouraged many of us from doing so. A teacher who has written a text on public speaking once confessed that whenever possible he avoided hearing a speech. Undoubtedly, listening to several thousand talks a year in the classroom is not conducive to taking a "mailman's holiday" by journeying some distance to hear what may be a mediocre address. It is our obligation, however, as professional critics to pay voluntary attention to current speakers. Why is one person

effective although he breaks many of the accepted rules? Why is another dull and ineffectual? What accounts for the unusual persuasiveness of still another in terms of his particular audience?

Reading more about living speakers and attending more speeches will enable us to examine and evaluate techniques of composition, delivery, and audience control used by practitioners of our art. We may pick up vivid, meaningful references to make our teaching more vital. Closer contact with contemporary public address should also promote greater respect for the importance of speech and increase our pride in being associated with the development of more effective communication.

(3) Our experiences in studying contemporaries and their speeches should be shared with others. Unlike research on oratory of the past, writing on current speech-making requires only a rhetorical background and an interest in current affairs. Therefore, nearly all of us could qualify. In order to stimulate interest in living speakers and to provide a ready source for publication, a section entitled "Contemporary Public Speakers" might be set up in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* or *The Speech Teacher*. It might be restricted to brief notes and commentaries about the principles and practices of living speakers, leaving article length studies for the regular pages.

(4) It is our obligation to join the ranks of contemporary speakers. Understandably, many of us avoid the added work and nervous strain of speaking in public. As a result, many of us are not competent speakers. At the close of a recent state speech meeting, the presiding officer semi-seriously and somewhat apologetically ventured an interesting reason for the excellence of the speeches: no speech teachers were on the program! Graduate students attending their first

⁴ For an interesting development of the thesis that we should consider the customary as well as the exceptional speakers, see Bower Aly, "The Contemporary Rhetoric of Politics and Statecraft," in *Contemporary Public Address, A Symposium*, ed. by Eugene E. White (Coral Gables: University of Miami Press, 1951), pp. 2-6.

⁵ A. Craig Baird, ed., *Representative American Speeches* (New York, annually since 1937).

⁶ Harold F. Harding, *The Age of Danger* (New York, 1952).

regional or national convention frequently express disappointment in the speaking done by some of the important leaders in our field. Of course, excellent teaching may be done by poor speakers, and talents which produce eminence as a scholar or organizer may tend to inhibit rather than to develop those personality traits characteristic of the persuasive speaker. Nevertheless, we must achieve and maintain adequate competence in speaking if we are to secure the respect and support of the general public. Also, by speaking in public we will be supplementing theory with actual experience, and will undoubtedly see in better perspective the problems our students will face in similar situations.

II.

We come now to the problem of improving our teaching through the introduction of our students to contemporary speaking. (1) Our students should be encouraged to read more current speeches and to attend more speeches. Perhaps it is not too much to ask that each student read and evaluate at least one model speech for each type he is asked to deliver in the classroom. These models should be of recent origin. The beginning student will probably be more interested in an address on a vital issue than in an older masterpiece such as Beveridge's "March of the Flag," or Lincoln's "Cooper Union Address." During the election year of 1952, speech students evinced a sharp interest in the oratory of Dwight Eisenhower, Adlai Stevenson, Richard Nixon, John Sparkman, Harry Truman, Robert Taft, and other campaigners.

Class members should also be required to attend at least one and preferably several talks delivered in the vicinity during the term. Possibly a student could be excused from one class period

to compensate for the time expended. He could be expected to write a brief analysis of the situation, the speaker's appearance, delivery, organization, adaptation to audience, etc. When a prominent orator is scheduled for radio or television, or when programs such as Town Meeting, People's Platform, Chicago Round Table, and Meet the Press occur, students should be notified in advance and urged to listen. If the program is scheduled during class time, arrangements may be made for the installation of a radio or television set in the classroom for the event. At the following class meeting the teacher and students could discuss the speech. Extra credit could be given for turning in a written analysis.

(2) Student attendance at actual speeches may be supplemented by the analysis of recordings. Local radio stations frequently will allow the use of their transcriptions in the classroom. Analyzing recorded speeches has some advantages. Every student hears the playback, in contrast to the probable limited attendance of students at a given face-to-face speaking situation. Also, recordings permit the repetition for additional study of segments of the speech which elicit unusual interest or illustrate an important principle. Sound motion pictures, if available, possess great instructional and unusually high interest values.⁷

By bringing the student into contact with good public speaking, we are exposing him to standards of excellence toward which he may strive, and are giving him criteria for evaluating his

⁷ If your school does not own projection equipment, contact your public library. Many libraries have films available either for a small rental fee or free of charge, and will provide projectors and operators at nominal cost. Larger libraries have projection rooms where the class may assemble. Your librarian will aid you in securing desired films not in stock.

own speaking efforts. In addition, he is sharpening his faculties for critical listening, gaining some knowledge of current issues, and acquiring some appreciation of the function of public address in determining present policies and in influencing the course of contemporary history.

(3) Another device is to ask each student to interview someone in the community who speaks frequently in public. Before the interview, the student should be briefed on appropriate questions to ask concerning the performer's methods of preparation, rehearsal, and delivery. A written report of the interview and a five-minute oral report in class could be required. The student's findings may be discussed by the entire class under the teacher's leadership. The interview method brings the student in close touch with present practices and gives the teacher further opportunity to check on his theories and those of his text.

(4) We must offer more students the opportunity to speak outside the classroom. We will all agree that the classroom situation is highly artificial. Faces become so familiar that the audience is no longer a challenge. Students recognize acutely that the purpose of the class is to improve their speaking, with the result that speech loses its vitality as a means of communicating ideas and emotions and assumes considerable academic sterility. Some outside experience in the form of forensic activities and speakers' clubs is, of course, available in most schools to the superior student. However, forensic programs often leave much to be desired. Too frequently, the large majority of speaking opportunities occur in tournaments, where speeches and debates are delivered in small rooms with the audience consisting of only a judge and the other competitors. Such

an occasion is even more artificial than the classroom.

Debaters, orators, and after-dinner speakers should be given more opportunities to appear before civic groups, school assemblies, and on radio and television. More schools should organize speakers' bureaus, and those who have them might increase the scope of their activities. Several of the major universities work up brochures containing pictures of the student speakers, pertinent data about them, titles of their speeches, topics for discussion or debate, etc. These pamphlets are distributed widely to the various organizations and schools in the community. An organization wishing to hear a particular speaker or discussion group usually will arrange transportation and provide meals at a dinner meeting. Sometimes students may be sent considerable distances throughout the state. Occasionally, an organization will offer a fee for the speaker's services, even though none is charged. Such income can be used to help defray the operating costs of the speakers' bureau.

Although limited opportunities may exist for the talented speaker to appear before "real" audiences, almost no outside activities are available for the average students in beginning speech classes. Perhaps such students might be enlisted as volunteer speakers on behalf of community services such as the Community Chest, the March of Dimes, the Heart Fund, and the Damon Runyon Cancer Fund. The sponsoring organizations will usually pay for transportation and will gladly furnish speech materials. Extra credit can be awarded those students who take part in outside activities such as panel discussions, speeches, presiding at class meetings, etc. At the Downtown Center of Western Reserve University, the speech department has occasionally arranged a joint meeting of a speech class and the Speakers' Division

of the Cleveland Advertising Club, with playful heckling of the speakers.

If none of these procedures is feasible, several sections of a public speaking class might be scheduled in such a way that occasionally they could meet together, thus forming a larger and, what is more important, a "new" audience. Or some method of exchange could be worked out whereby a student in one section could deliver his speech to another section. Admittedly the last two methods do not take the student off the campus; but they will serve to relieve the intellectual vacuum of speaking to the same group of students during the entire semester.

SUMMARY

We teachers of public speaking, on the whole, have not paid sufficient at-

tention to the techniques and practices of contemporary public speakers, with the result that we are not checking our classroom techniques and the theories of our textbooks against the realities of modern "real-life" speaking. It is clearly our obligation to develop a genuine interest in public address outside the classroom. We should read more about present-day speakers, analyze the texts of their speeches, deliver more speeches ourselves, and share our experiences by writing for the various speech publications. We may stimulate similar interest on the part of our students by encouraging them to read current speeches, attend and evaluate speech-making situations, analyze records and sound pictures, interview successful speakers, and by increasing their opportunity to face audiences outside the classroom.

SPEECH TRAINING IN MEXICO'S KINDERGARTENS AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Virgil G. Logan

TO understand the Mexican system of education it is necessary to realize that Mexico has looked mostly to Europe for the inspiration of its school system. All education in Mexico, with the exception of the universities and certain professional schools connected with other governmental agencies, comes under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. The states and municipalities retain much local control over education, and are expected to share in the expenses and administration of the federal schools. They may operate schools of their own, but only in accordance with federal regulations.

Education is compulsory in Mexico from the age of six through fourteen. Naturally, where schools do not exist or where the facilities are not adequate to care for all the children, this law cannot be enforced. In most parts of the country, however, the desire for education is so great that the problem is one providing schools and teachers rather than compelling the children to attend.

Private education exists in Mexico, but by law all primary, secondary, and normal schools must be licensed and inspected by the federal government and must follow the government program of education. Although many very fine private schools exist, the public schools, on the whole, are surpassing the majority of them both in quality of instruction and in the physical plants.

KINDERGARTEN

Education of the children of Mexico in the free public schools begins at the age of four in the *jardín de niños* or kindergartens. Kindergarten education is not compulsory. It is considered a privilege, and as such is eagerly sought. The urban kindergartens enroll the children for three years, during the ages of four, five, and six. At seven the child enters the primary school. In the rural kindergartens the child attends for one year only, at the age of five, and enters the primary school at six. There is, however, a definite trend at the present to extend the rural kindergartens to the full three year term.

The Mexican kindergarten

aims to orient the child to the world in which he lives, while at the same time it attempts to instill in him a desire for the structure of a better life in a society which he himself can help build. By means of experiences of real life situations which give the child opportunity for problem solving, for critical thinking, the child will bring the objectives of the kindergarten to a realization.¹

The curriculum is organized around centers of interest showing the relation of the child with the home, community, and nature. Among the activities carried on in the kindergartens are: "games, stories, dramatizations, singing, plastic arts, cultivation of plants, care of animals, social experiences, domestic ac-

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¹ Lillian M. Logan, "A Survey of Present Practices of Kindergarten Education in the Schools of Mexico City," M. S. seminar report, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1950, p. 22.

tivities, children's theatre, playground, children's library, and the doll house."²

Most of the speech activities in the Mexican schools are carried on in connection with the work in language. Under the centralized system of education the minimum requirements for each level of education are established by the Ministry of Education, and are sent to all the schools in the nation where they are adapted to the needs and conditions of the local community and environment.

The best training in speech observed in the Mexican schools was in the kindergarten. Perhaps the greatest single factor in this was the influence of the national director, Señorita Rosaura Zapata, one of the great educators of the world. In 1902, at the age of twenty-six, she was sent to the United States to study kindergarten methods. In January, 1904, Señorita Zapata opened one of the first public kindergartens in Mexico. From that date she has been active in guiding the destinies of the kindergartens in Mexico, and in 1948 was made the first director of the new General Bureau of Preschool Education. In 1950, in recognition of her abilities, she was elected vice-president of the Directive Council of the World Organization of Preschool Education, a branch of UNESCO, and is chairman of the 1952 meeting to be held in Mexico City.

Señorita Zapata, Dr. Gladys Borchers, Professor of Speech Education at the University of Wisconsin, the writer, and his wife, who was gathering material for a doctoral dissertation on the kindergartens of Mexico, discussed speech training in the Mexican kindergartens at a dinner in the British Club late in August, 1949. The expressiveness of the kindergarten children was commented

upon. In reply to the question asked of Señorita Zapata if she had a purpose in training the children to be expressive, she replied, "Let the children talk and express themselves. When the children say 'Buenos dias' they should say it with their eyes, their bodies, and all their actions. There must be a correlation among voice, language, thought, and action. This has been my belief and practice for many, many years."

Because of the poverty of cultural opportunities in so many of the homes of the children, Señorita Zapata stated that in the Mexican kindergartens the first emphasis in speech was placed on experiences so that the child would have something to talk about. Music, dancing, rhythms, and art are all considered as closely related to speech, being simply other mediums of communication.

The kindergartens of Mexico are literally gardens of children. They are located behind large walls. There are gates at the entrances guarded by gatekeepers. Space is provided in the enclosures for gardens, which the several hundred children, divided into groups of forty to fifty, plant and harvest. Nearly all the activities are carried on in the open air, the rooms next to the walls being used only for certain indoor experiences. It is in these gardens that the visitor is cordially greeted, not only by the teachers, but by the children who are genuinely glad to see *norteamericano* friends. It is the exceptional child who is shy. They have been trained to talk freely with their guests, to explain their activities, and to show their gardens and buildings. The teachers themselves are good models of expressiveness without appearing to play down to the children.

Throughout the day the child is aided in developing speech habits appropriate to his age. The younger children are given instruction through the

² Rosaura Zapata, *Teoria y Práctica del Jardín de Niños* (Mexico, 1947), pp. 18-19.

various activities with little attempt at formal instruction. With the third year groups more conscious attention is given to language development and skills.

In all groups, as the closing activity of the morning, an opportunity is given for the children to stand before their companions to tell something of the morning's experiences. The teacher sits with the group and sets the mood by discussing some of the activities participated in. Depending upon the center of interest for the week, the group may have made a boat, planted corn, harvested carrots, learned a new song or dance, or participated in any of numerous other activities. Each day has brought challenging experiences so that the children seldom feel at a loss to express themselves. Following the introduction by the teacher, the children volunteer for the opportunity of talking to the entire group. Even with strangers present, nearly every child asks for the privilege of speaking. With the four year olds, their "speeches" usually consist of only two or three sentences. With the six year olds, the speeches are longer and more involved. In all groups the teachers encourage the children with a pleasant *bueno* (good), often repeating correctly and with the proper inflections what the children have attempted to say.

By the end of the three year period in the kindergartens the children have learned to talk to one another, to their teachers, to friends, and to strangers freely and expressively. They have learned to stand before a group and in language appropriate to their own grade level and in clear voices, to speak easily, using their bodies freely, and to talk directly to their audiences.

In addition to the training in speaking and conversation, the kindergarten children are also given an early intro-

duction to interpretation and drama. The development of a sense of rhythm, so essential in poetry, is an integral part of kindergarten training. Each day, in all three years of the program, the children are given an opportunity to respond to music. For the smaller children there are simple rhythms and games played to the accompaniment of music. For the older children there are the colorful native dances, performed on fiesta days in authentic native costumes of the various regions. Señorita Zapata has taught throughout the years that the development of a strong sense of rhythm is basic in correct speech development for the children.

Simple rhythmical poems are taught both in school and in many of the homes. At this early age the children have learned to respond with their entire bodies when they recite. Usually their gestures are simple and natural. At times, though, the children are taught their gestures by those who have themselves learned a highly mechanical system. Then only do they seem awkward and insecure.

During the story hours the teachers often read poems to the children. Throughout their kindergarten years they are exposed daily to various situations that tend to develop a love for poetry and skill in interpreting it.

Ample provision is made in Mexico's kindergartens for the dramatic expression of the child's interests. Through games and rhythms the child's body is trained to be responsive. In creative dramatics this responsiveness is directed to the free expression of his imaginative world. Simple nursery rhymes are read by the teacher, then dramatized by the children. Experiences from their daily living are portrayed. Scenes are planned in keeping with the project of the week. At times more elaborate plays, with

scenery, costumes, and words all worked out by the older groups are performed for the other children in the kindergarten or for the parents.

Nearly every kindergarten has its own puppet theatre. The teachers and the mothers make the hand puppets, often with detailed suggestions from the children. Simple scenery is painted by members of the class. The story is developed and rehearsed. Then comes the moment of breathless pleasure for both the performers and the audience. Since most of the kindergartens have from five to eight groups of forty to fifty children each, usually only one group at a time is invited to the performance. The children act as puppeteers, say the lines, and pull the curtains. When the show is over it is difficult to know which is the more thrilled over the performance—the audience or the puppeteers.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

In a country where sixty-six per cent of the population over ten years of age was illiterate thirty years ago, elementary education has necessarily been the most important of the educational institutions. Elementary education is terminal for the majority even today. As a result, into the six years allotted to them must be crowded the fundamental skills, information, and attitudes essential for the proper functioning of democratic concepts of life.

For the twenty per cent of the children who have been privileged to attend kindergarten, the elementary schools are but an extension of a school life to which they have become adjusted. For the eighty per cent who have been denied this opportunity, the change is perhaps even more drastic than for the children in our own country because of the still too general lack of cultural advantages in their homes. Especially in the rural communities, the child of six

who learns to read and write in the first grade is often the only member of the family so trained. It is indeed a new life for him, filled with many new responsibilities.

As in the kindergarten, the basic curriculum is prepared and distributed by the Ministry of Education. Here, however, the children are required to pass government examinations to qualify for promotion. Although many of the teachers use the most progressive methods in their teaching, the crowded classes of fifty or more students, together with the lack of sufficient books cause a great number of them to rely upon formal teaching techniques.

The official curriculum provides a wide variety of speech activities for each grade level. In spite of this, however, and because of large classes, the lack of training in techniques of teaching oral communication, and the inclusion in the government examinations of only the written communication skills, a large number of the elementary schools limit their training in speech to the extra-curricular activities. Although classes in twenty elementary schools were visited in the summer of 1949, and with an entire morning or afternoon session usually being devoted to a school and classes in different subjects on various levels, no training in the giving of speeches or in conversation was observed. Although some principals and teachers tried to evade the questions about the lack of oral training, the majority of them said frankly that in view of the crowded classes, the pressure to get the students through the government examinations, and with multiple sessions held in the buildings, there was no opportunity to do any regular work in what we call speech training. They did endeavor to correct the students in all their class room recitations, get them to talk so

they could be heard, and to help them to express themselves as well as possible; but very little help was given to the classes as a whole in the preparation and delivery of speeches.

The large number of fiestas in the Mexican schools have provided an opportunity for the development of an oral training program not found in the classroom. Declamations and recitations are an essential part of the fiestas and it is here that the greatest amount of training was discovered. An outstanding example of what can be accomplished when a teacher is trained and interested in the developing of oral reading was demonstrated at the Victor Maria Flores Public Elementary School for Girls. Señora Silva, a second grade teacher, in addition to training her own grade in their various speech activities, was responsible for all extra-curricular speech projects in the school.

A new poem was introduced during the observation of the language class. First the selection was read to the children by the teacher. Then the teacher and the children discussed the meaning of the selection, and difficult words were explained. Following this the children studied it over silently for a few minutes. After this period of silent study they were given another opportunity for discussion to clarify any questions that might have arisen during the additional study. Next the poem was read by the group to catch the rhythm and general mood. When it had been read over a few times by the entire group to give all the children confidence, volunteers were called to read individually. These readings were discussed, suggestions for improvement were given by the children and the teacher, and then the children tried reading again. This project was ended by the group again reading the selection and the poem being assigned for memorization.

Three girls who had memorized another selection and who were ready to work on delivery, then came forward. First they read the selection together, from memory, rather mechanically and with no bodily action. This was discussed by the teacher and the class. Then the selection was read by each girl individually. One gave a particularly pleasing interpretation. This was pointed out and the reasons why the class preferred her reading were discussed. Next bodily action was introduced. This consisted of gesturing in a manner reminiscent of the instruction given by Scott in the 1849 edition of *Practical Elocution* as the student was told to put his arms out at an angle from his body on alternate sentences to keep him from standing motionless while speaking "impassionate language." Señora Silva explained that it was necessary to get the students accustomed to gesturing and to using their bodies in relation to the rhythm of the poem regardless of the emphasis the particular gestures gave to the selection in the early period of training. Later, when the child had developed freedom in the use of the body, these gestures would be adapted more specifically to the particular selection.

The three girls were still working on their poem when the recess period arrived. A group of sixth grade girls had arranged to work during this time on some poems that they were preparing for a fiesta. They had studied under Señora Silva for several years and showed the results of her training. They read with great assurance and deep feeling. Although they were gesturing constantly, the gestures were so much a part of the reading that they did not seem inappropriate.

Señora Silva was requested by us to write out the rules she followed in

teaching interpretation. She complied with the following list:

1. Choose the composition in accord with the age and temperament of the student.
2. Reading of the recitation by the teacher.
3. Explanation of words difficult to understand.
4. Correct pronunciation given of difficult words.
5. Reading of the recitation by the student.
6. Memorization of the recitation.
7. Interpretation of the recitation watching that the student is not exaggerated in his manner or in his voice.
8. Require clear diction in interpreting the composition.
9. Let the gestures and modulations of the voice be in accord with that which is being interpreted.
10. Adaptation to the style of the composition which is being interpreted.

Creative drama is used by the more progressive elementary teachers. It is the objective of the Ministry of Education to include a theatre in every new elementary school constructed in Mexico. It is hoped that this will act as a stimulant to the inclusion of drama and of various speech and music activities in the programs of the schools. Simple dramatizations are urged as a teaching device to give instruction to the parents, as well as the children in geography, history, and the social sciences. They are used in temperance and health campaigns, and to tell the story of Mexican socialization.

The Children's Theatre was organized in 1942 by the Ministry of Education with the plays being produced by the top talent of the theatre section of the Fine Arts Institute. Each year both original and classical children's plays are performed for several hundred thousand school children of Mexico, both in the capital and in the states. The construction of a new state theatre in Mexico City will extend the season so that many additional plays may be produced each year. An audience is being prepared for the best in live drama.

Because of the differences in the temperament of the Mexicans and the functioning of their schools, speech education has developed in a pattern different from that in the United States. The term "speech education" is unknown in Mexico, but the objective to train the children in Mexico in the skills and arts of communication, both oral and written, is an integral part of the curricula of the schools. Although the development of oral training has to a great extent been lost sight of in the elementary schools, especially because of the crowded conditions, there is reason to believe that it will take an increasingly important place in the educational program as new schools are opened and as they become staffed by teachers trained in progressive methods.

TEXTBOOKS USED IN CERTAIN SELECTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

Maryann Peins

OCCASIONALLY one finds a compilation of the various textbooks and materials available for classroom use in the elementary school (QJS, April, 1950), but frequently the question is raised by teachers, principals, educators, and students, "Just which textbooks are being used?"

As part of the author's survey¹ conducted in 1948 to explore the status of speech education in the Elementary schools in the United States, the question, "Which speech textbooks do you use in the classroom teaching of speech?" was asked of principals and teachers in various elementary schools in Atlanta, Dallas, Denver, Houston, Indianapolis, Oakland, and Rochester.

The teachers answering the question gave the following: 44.8% replied, "no text used"; 12% said, "Various texts in the speech field" (these texts were not designated); 7.5% replied, *Language in Action* by Threlkeld, Noar, and Zellar; 5.7% *This Way to Better Speech* by Abney and Miniace; 4.2% *Games and Jingles* by Barrows and Hall; 3.4% *Better Speech and Better Reading* by Schoolfield, *Our First Speech Book* by Lloyd, and *State Courses of Study*; 1.3% *Speech in Education* by Backus and *Your Speaking Voice* by Karr.

These texts represent those used by the teachers in the elementary schools

who answered this question. No school provided a speech text for use by the children as indicated by the teachers' replies.

The principals answering this question gave the following: 49.3% said "no text provided"; 21.7% of the answers were "Various texts in the speech field" (these texts were not designated); 7.3% *Course of Study*; 5.8% *This Way to Better Speech* by Abney and Miniace; 2.9% *Our First Speech Book* by Lloyd; 1.4% *Speech in Education* by Backus; 1.4% *Language in Action* by Threlkeld, Noar, and Zellar.

The next logical question to ask teachers and principals seemed to be, "If you do not use a speech textbook or manual, what is the reason?"

The teachers who answered this question gave the following reasons for not using a speech textbook or manual: 31% of the answers stated that specific speech training was not included in the classroom; 28% commented that a speech textbook was not provided by the school; 16% stated that they (the teachers) were unacquainted with the speech textbook field; 13% said that original material was presented; 10% stated that no adequate speech textbook was available; and 2% did not give a reason.

The principals who replied gave the following reasons why a speech textbook or teacher's manual was not used in the classroom: 33% answered that specific speech training was not included in the classroom; 16% that no adequate speech textbook was available; 15% that the

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¹ Maryann Peins, "An Investigation of the Status of Speech Education in Certain Selected Elementary Schools in the United States" (M.A. Thesis, University of Denver, 1948).

teachers preferred not to use a text; 11% that a speech textbook was not provided because the financial budget did not allow purchase of a text; 9% that they (the principals) were unacquainted with the speech textbook field.

The final question in the textbook area asked of the teachers was, "If you do not use a speech text, what supplementary speech material do you use?"

The teachers answering this question gave the following answers: 15% said "Do not use any supplementary material"; 13.1% were "books" (speech texts, readers, anthologies, etc.); 12% of the answers were stories; 11.5% were poetry; 9% visual aids; 5.3% drills; 2.8% plays; 1.9% songs; and 1.4% "the use of mechanical devices" (radio,

phonograph, etc.) to supplement the classroom teaching of speech.

In summarizing the answers given by teachers and principals it seems that: (1) in the majority of schools surveyed, speech textbooks are not used in the classroom by the students, and if a text is provided it is available only to the teacher as a reference book; (2) a significant percentage of teachers who do not use a speech textbook fail to make use of any supplementary speech materials in their classroom teaching of speech education; (3) the main reason why a speech textbook is not used in the elementary classrooms surveyed seems to be because specific speech training is not included as a part of the classroom procedure.

AN ORIENTATION COURSE IN CREATIVE SKILLS FOR FIRST YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Wilma McNess

A NUMBER of junior high schools have installed orientation courses in the sciences or the arts, attempting thereby to introduce students to several like subjects in one course. These courses have resulted in varying degrees of success depending upon how much care was taken in the integration of the subjects and how much cooperative effort was put forth by the teachers who had to fit their subjects together.

In Freeport, Illinois, an orientation course in *Creative Skills*, including the subjects of Painting, Crafts, and Speech, is to be offered as a requirement for the seventh graders; the course is to be part of a newly designed curriculum that will go into operation as soon as the junior high school moves into its new building, which will be completed this year.

While it is impossible to decide specifically what such a course should contain until the problems of the local situation present themselves, it has been necessary to prepare in advance a flexible program. Taking the need for flexibility into consideration, we have planned a possible *Creative Speech Unit* to be fitted into the broad objectives of the course.

In an orientation course including a number of subjects, the teacher of any one unit is faced with the task of presenting his own part of the year's work, with emphasizing its values, and with fitting his part into the total pattern in

such a way that the students can see the relationships as they become aware of the nature, purpose, and unity resulting from the combination.

A combined broad objective for the Painting, Crafts, and Speech units can be stated thus: To define and demonstrate the creative skills, the tools required for each, and the use of these skills and tools by the student in expressing his best self to his own satisfaction. The pursuit of such an objective includes therapeutic activities necessary for sound mental hygiene essential to the normal student, as well as the handicapped; improvement in the use of the tools of the creative skills results not only in clearer methods of revealing our best selves, but in methods of "channeling out" those tensions and traits not part of our best selves.

Since creating is the job of the artist, a Creative Skills course can make effective use of the word "art" as a basic concept. Of the many definitions of art, a helpful one in this situation is that it means "to-fit-together." In Painting, Crafts, or Speech, the students become "fitters"—they fit their thoughts and feelings into the various media with the aid of certain tools. Each of the teachers of skills, accepting this terminology, can utilize such questions as the following to aid in the unit relationship.

1. What does the artist fit together when he paints a picture?
2. What does an artist fit together when he builds a puppet theater? When he makes a vase?

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3. What does an artist fit together when he makes a speech?
4. What does an artist fit together for beautiful daily living?
5. What is the greatest of all arts? Living?
6. What is a fit man? A fit boy? A fit girl?
7. What is meant by "fit for freedom?"

Being mindful of the fact that we must take students where we find them in respect to speech attitudes and skills, and should proceed as far as their abilities and interests justify, we have completed a possible plan for the Creative Speech Unit. It includes, in its twelve weeks, an introductory unit acquainting the students with the Creative Skills, followed by three weeks on Language as a Creative Tool, two weeks on Bodily Action, and two weeks on Vocal Action as a tool. The last three weeks of the course focus upon putting the tools to work in preparing an assembly program. It is, of course, very difficult to select what to teach in such a short time and yet give maximum benefit. Whether our selection of material is really suited to our needs will perhaps be more evident as the program is put to work. The results can be reported after a year or two of experimentation.

With anticipation of the fun and potentialities of any course that includes the word *creative*, each teacher can proceed from this point in developing his own unit and labelling his part of it for each individual student with the phrase "For Your Best Self."

The first unit, *Introduction to Creative Speech*, and the last unit, *All Tools in Action*, are here outlined with daily assignments suggested. The three middle units, *Meaning Through Language*, *Meaning Through Bodily Action*, and *Meaning Through Voice*, are topically

outlined to indicate the direction and material they follow.

First Unit: *Introduction to Creative Speech*

Approximate Time: 2 weeks, 3 periods a week.

Objectives:

1. To present the three skills offered in the year's course.
2. To present speech as a creative skill.
3. To define the tools of the speaking skill.
4. To show that painting, crafts, and speech are means for self-expression.
5. To define the artist as one who fits together.
6. To discuss what fits together to produce a particular work of art.
7. To make known to the students the purpose and sequences to be used in training for improved speech skill.

FIRST WEEK

First Class:

Purpose:

1. To become acquainted with the students.
2. To acquaint the students with the subjects of the course.

Teaching Aids:

1. The chairs in the classroom will be arranged in a circle surrounding a center table.
2. The center table will hold an arrangement of objects made in the other two units of the creative skills course (crafts and painting) and, in addition, books, figurines, sports equipment, musical instruments, and pictures (realistic ones and abstractions),—all carefully selected to appeal to the interest level of the group. This assortment of art objects will illustrate both inferior and excellent qualities of artistic workmanship.

Activity:

1. The students will be given time to examine the objects on the center table.
2. Each student will choose which object on the table he likes the best and then be seated in a chair in the circle around the table.
3. Each student, in turn, will introduce himself and tell which object he prefers and why. This will provide each student with a chance to speak during the first class meeting.
4. The class discussion will follow covering the following topics:
 - A. What are the Creative Skills?
 - B. What are Creative Skills for?
 - C. What is an artist?
 - D. What does an artist do?
 - E. What makes us like certain works of the creative artists more than others?

Assignment:

Each student will bring to class something he has tried to create in camp, home, grade school, Bible school, etc. He will be prepared to tell whether the job was easy or hard and what he fitted together to make it. If the object wasn't in his opinion successful, he will tell why.

Second Class:

Purpose:

1. To further build a concept of what the course is all about.
2. To develop definitions of terms to be used in the course.

Teaching Aids:

1. Room will be arranged as in previous class. Each student will choose the object on the table he likes the least and tell why.
2. There will be group discussion and development of definitions for the terms *art, skills, craft, painter, media*.
3. The students will select which of the

pictures and objects on the table they would like to keep in the room throughout the course. These objects will be referred to as the course proceeds.

Third Class:

Purpose:

1. To enable the teacher to further diagnose the students and determine course procedure.

Activity:

1. A test to reveal each student's interests, needs, and ability to enjoy this course.

Assignment:

Three-minute speeches showing the objects they have brought from home, describing the processes and problems of making each project.

*Test Questions for the end
of the first week*

Name

Address

Telephone No.

Name of Parents

No. of brothers

No. of sisters

Do you work?

Have you ever worked?

What kind of job did you have?

What are your hobbies?

Favorite movies?

What radio programs do you enjoy?

Television programs?

What do you like to do most?

What do you think is meant by the following words?

Personality

An opinion

Pantomime

Self-expression

Speech

Attitude

A fact

What tools do the following people use?

The painter
The architect
The cook
The sculptor
The dancer
The speaker

SECOND WEEK

First Class:

Purpose:

1. To check language abilities and problems.
2. To get each student on his feet in front of the class.

Teaching Aid:

1. Chairs arranged in the usual order given to a speaker.

Activity:

1. Each student will take his object which he has brought and show it to the class and explain how it was made and the tools involved.
2. Students may ask the speaker questions at the end of each speech.

Assignment:

Speeches continued through the next period.

Second Class:

Purpose:

1. To finish the speeches of the previous day.

Activity:

1. The same as preceding period.

Third Class:

Purpose:

1. To define the title and purpose of the course.
2. To outline the procedure to be followed.
3. To show the tools that must be used and improved for effective speaking.

Activity:

1. Two Movies: (1) *The Successful*

Speaker. (2) *Speak with Power, Poise, and Purpose.* (30 min.)

2. Group discussion of the movies and how we get right and wrong meanings through the use or misuse of our voices and bodies.

Assignment:

Atkinson and Nelson, *Personality Through Speech*. Chapters 1 and 8.

1. Why a course in speech?
2. The speaker's tools.

Second Unit: *Getting Meaning with Language.*

Approximate Time: 3 weeks, 3 periods a week.

Objectives:

1. To build a sound attitude and regard for words.
2. To help the class understand and conclude that there is a difference between facts and opinions.
3. To understand that language affects our thoughts and feelings.
4. To understand that it helps to "date" the statements we make.
5. To understand that an object and its name are not the same.

Purpose:

1. To show that we cannot express ourselves accurately without careful choice of words.
2. To show that saying what we mean and meaning what we say is a difficult job.
3. To suggest that much of the discord at school, at home, in the town, in the nation is due to the difficulty of meaning what we say.

Teaching Aids:

1. The classroom chairs will again be arranged in a circle.
2. The teacher will be seated with the students.
3. The introduction to the beginning of the language unit will be the fol-

lowing quotation from *Alice in Wonderland*.

"When I use a word," said Humpty Dumpty, in a rather scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean—nothing more nor less." "The question is," said Alice, "whether you can make words mean so many different things." "The question is," said Humpty Dumpty, "which is to be the master—that's all."

Activity:

1. The following Topics will be discussed.
 - a. Which is to be the master? You or your words?
 - b. Family Words
 - c. Gang Words
 - d. Classroom Words
 - e. Church Words
 - f. Town Words
 - g. Words of a Nation
 - h. Words of a World
2. Facts and opinions are different.
 - a. How to determine a fact or an opinion.
 - b. Facts and opinions at home, at school, in the town, in the gang.
3. How not to get lost in a talking, changing world. Be the master by "dating" what you say.

Teaching Aids for the Unit

1. Individual student scrap books of advertisements, current events, editorials, etc., illustrating topics covered in the unit.
2. Observations of family and school life on language problems.
3. "Lincoln and Simplicity" from Dodd and Seabury, *Our Speech*.
4. Oral reports of language problems.
5. Bulletin board display of contrasts between Facts and Opinions.

Getting Meaning Through Listening Objectives:

1. To learn that listening is an active process.

2. To understand that speech requires a listener.
3. To learn that each speaker's improvement greatly depends upon the ability of the listening class.
4. To understand that each performance will be followed by Listening Reports from this week on.
5. To teach the method of giving a listening report.
6. To motivate students to listen selectively and with specificity.

Sequence of Topics to be Covered:

1. Listening defined as an activity.
2. Why we listen.
3. The Speaking-Listening Cycle.
4. Kinds of Listening: Information, Pleasure, Appreciation, Discrimination.
5. Method of Making Listening Reports.
 - a. Constructive comments given first.
 - b. Improvements suggested secondly.
 - c. All comments focused on the spoken words—not the speaker.
6. Student reports on kinds of sounds heard at home, on the way to school, down town, etc.
7. Student oral reports on a radio speech.
8. Distinguish between noises, sounds, pleasant voices, unpleasant voices, clarity of diction, etc.

Teaching Aids:

1. Tape recordings of students' voices.
2. Variety of musical sounds indicated by the following extremes in compositions.
 - a. Mozart, *Symphony No. 40 in G Minor*, Reiner, Pittsburgh Symphony—Col. ML-2008 (classical, perfect form, obvious harmony)
 - b. Copland, *Billy the Kid*, Ballet Suite, Bernstein, R.C.A. Vic. LM-1031 (modern dissonances blended with melodies, vigorous rhythms)

3. The following two versions of Tschaikovsky's *Nutcracker Suite* used to differentiate between sounds and music.

- a. Stokowski, Vic. LM-46
- b. Spike Jones, RCA 20-1739-B (noises, rhythmic change, humor added to original melodies)

I Third Unit: *Meaning Through Bodily Action*

Approximate Time: 2 weeks, 3 periods a week.

Purposes:

1. To show that bodily action is the first tool of creative speech that the child uses.
2. To show that bodily action is universally understood.
3. To point out *action* in the craft items of Unit I and how they relate to bodily action.
4. To illustrate how meaning through vocal action depends upon effective bodily action.

Activities: The following sequence of topics will be followed:

1. Age, character, work, and play as indicated by bearing and gesture.
2. Individual simple pantomime.
3. Mood pantomimes.
4. Change of mood pantomimes.
5. Impromptu group pantomimes and telling stories with action.
6. Class reports of observations of everyday actions.

Teaching Aids:

1. Pantomime suggestions from Burger's *Creative Play Acting*.
2. Movie: *Muscles*, 15 minutes, Encyclopedia Britannica Film.
3. Music for group mood pantomimes.
 - a. Debussy, Nocturnes (Les Nuages) Stokowski, Vic. LM-1154 (sustained, heavy mood).
 - b. Kabalevsky, Comedians, Opus 26. Fiedler, Vic. LM-1106 (light, gay mood)

4. Pictures of people in action compared to actions in the art and craft objects in Unit I.

5. The paintings of abstractions from Unit I compared to group pantomimes and also to the music used for the pantomimes.

6. Class Discussion of the following chapters:

- a. Chapter "How the Body Effects Speech" from *Everyday Speech*.
- b. "Muscles in Action" from *Living Speech*.
- c. "Pantomime and Gesture" from *Personality Through Speech*.

Fourth Unit: *Meaning Through Voice*

Approximate Time: 2 weeks, 3 periods a week.

Introduction to Unit will use the following quotation:

"The time has come," the Walrus said,
 "To talk of many things: of shoes—and
 ships—and sealing wax—of cabbages—
 and kings—and why the sea is boiling
 hot—and whether pigs have wings."

The time has come for us to discover how we sound when we talk of many things!

Purposes:

1. To introduce the voice as a tool of creative speech.
2. To give basic information about the processes of vocal action.
3. To develop awareness of various kinds of voices and their fitness to their need, e.g. playground voices, church voices, happy voices, sick voices, business voices, etc.
4. To develop concepts of vowels, consonants, and diction.
5. To indicate the necessity of good listening for vocal improvement.
6. To provide time for each student to give a vocal drill and a diction exercise before the class.

Activities: The following sequence of topics will be followed:

1. Discussion of breathing, phonation, resonance, articulation.
2. Listening reports on radio voices.
3. Discussion of voice and voiceless consonants and normal sounds.
4. Class Group Drill on vocal and breathing exercises.
5. Individual performances. Each student will present an assigned drill and read his own selection of a poem or prose work.
6. Vocal action will be integrated with the other creative arts that have been discussed.

Teaching Aids:

1. Chart or plastic model of larynx.
2. Record: *Your Voice*. Encyclopedia Britannica Film.
3. Atkinson and Nelson, *Personality Through Speech*. Use Chapter, "Sharpening the Tools."
4. Smith, Krefting, and Lewis, *Everyday Speech*. Use Chapter, "Conversation."
5. Dodd and Seabury, *Our Speech*. Use pictures and explanation of fundamental processes of vocal action.
6. Written test over course so far.

Fifth Unit: *All Tools in Action*

Approximate Time: 3 weeks, 9 periods.

Objectives:

1. To fit language, listening, bodily action, vocal action into specific meaning.
2. To have fun with the speaker's tools.
3. To develop knowledge of the various kinds of speech activities.
4. To prepare for a listening audience outside the classroom.

First Class:

Purpose:

1. To motivate interest in speech activities.
2. To build group unity and enthusiasm in the last unit of the course.
3. To introduce a play.

4. To introduce the class to the various types of speech activities available in curricular and extra-curricular classes.

Activities:

1. Chairs will be arranged in a circle. Teacher will have the role of a story teller and will read the play, *Maelduin of Arran*.
2. Group discussion of Maelduin and his likeness to Ulysses. The following questions will be discussed:
 - a. What is a legend?
 - b. How do they give meaning?
 - c. What meaning do we get from each of Maelduin's adventures?

Assignment:

1. From memory list Maelduin's adventures.
2. Could they be divided into single stories? How many?
3. Plan the sequence of the scenes needed to unfold Maelduin's adventures.

Second Class:

Purpose:

1. To develop the story of Maelduin into specific scenes.

Teaching Aids:

1. The students will be seated in a large circle allowing room in the center for the action of the play.
2. The play action will be developed in arena style.

Activities:

1. Each student will have a play script to keep.
2. Each student will be assigned a part and the whole play will be worked through. (The script calls for 20 characters and more can be added so that a whole class can participate in the action.)

Assignment:

1. Volunteers will plan the sound effects

that would be needed if this were to be broadcast.

2. Students will report on what could be happening on the Isle of the Laughing Folk and create the entire island scene.

Third Class:

Purpose:

1. To decide on number of scenes needed for a radio broadcast.
2. To assign parts for the broadcast.

Activities: A radio broadcast of Maelduin will be planned using the following guide.

1. Narrator—children of Sir Coming of Finn St. Patrick.
2. Discuss first scene:
 - a. Social problem involved in the plot.
 - b. Opinions used by the boys in the first scene.
 - c. Labels inaccurately used by boys.
 - d. Justice in ancient times. Did the word "justice" mean what it does now?

(Every boy will have an opportunity to play the scene.)

3. The class will then choose the cast for this first scene. The teacher will tie the meaning of the scene with the unit on language.
4. The class will choose the narrator—considering factors learned in the unit on the *Meaning Through Vocal Action*.
5. The class will choose sailors with good diction and meaningful voices that will tell their story.
6. Through creative dramatics and discussion the story of the Laughing Isle will be developed.

SECOND WEEK

First Class:

Purpose:

1. To continue the play.

Activities:

1. The climax scene will be analyzed.
2. The theme of the story will be discovered.
3. Material from the unit on bodily action will be used at this point. The posture, bearing, and gestures of the young Maelduin will be in marked contrast to those of the old Reiners.
4. The last scene will be played giving both boys and girls a chance at the climax.

Assignments:

1. Parts will be assigned for memorizing for assembly program the following week.
2. Radio broadcast with the scripts for the weekend will be planned.

Second Class:

Purpose:

1. To set the parts of the play for radio and assembly programs.
2. To run through the whole play.

Activities:

1. Discussion of the following techniques that are being used in the play will show variety of speech techniques that can be used in the play.
 - a. Scene one—sociodrama and language meaning.
 - b. Scene two—Queen and Maelduin—narration scene—strong body and vocal action required.
 - c. Scene three—Sailors on the first island—choral speaking with stress on vocal action.
 - d. Laughing Island Scene—creative dramatics.
 - e. Climax scene—demanding language, body, and vocal action equally.
2. Rehearsal with sound effects after school will be necessary.
3. Radio broadcast plans will be completed.

Third Class:

Purpose:

1. To rehearse the play.

Activity:

1. Rehearsal the whole class period.

Assignment:

1. There will be rehearsal with no scripts for Monday.

THIRD WEEK

First Class:

Purpose:

1. To prepare the play for an assembly.

Activities:

1. There will be complete rehearsal in class.
2. Extra class activity: Decide whether or not to costume. (Could be well done with just lighting effects.) The rest of the play project will be handled out of class.

Assignment:

Final exam will be:

1. Choose a fable.
2. Tell the story up to the point of climax and use as much bodily action and characterization as possible.
3. At the point of climax read the story

from the book, to the end of the story.

4. Plan carefully the introduction, details of what, where, when, who. Plan body of the story so that the feeling will fit into the climax when you start reading from your text.
5. Listeners will hand in written reports of all performances.

Second and Third Classes:

Final stories and reports. Performances will be compared to first speaking assignment for improvement evaluations.

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THE FORUM

CONVENTION—SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

The 1952 Convention of the Speech Association of America is scheduled for December 29, 30, 31 in Cincinnati at the Netherland Plaza and the Sinton Hotels. This year's program, according to H. P. Constans, First Vice-President, is designed to give added emphasis to the problems in speech that are of particular interest to teachers in the elementary and secondary schools.

While all levels of pedagogical interest and all areas of the field of speech will be served by general and sectional meetings, the following programs are of particular appeal to the private and public school teacher:

"Oral Reading in the Classroom," with Edna Gilbert of State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota, as chairman, will be presented by Mabel Noall, University of Utah; Gladys Borchers, University of Wisconsin; and Gail Boardman, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania.

"The High School Course of Study in Speech" program will feature a panel discussion presided over by Evelyn Konigsberg of the New York City Schools. The panel members will be Gregg Browning, East High School, Denver; Alice Donaldson, Clayton High School, Missouri; Freda Kenner, Messick High School, Memphis; Waldo Phelps, University of California, Los Angeles; and Jacob Zack, Samuel J. Tilden High School, New York City.

"Programs of Speech Education in the Public Schools" will be arranged by C. Agnes Rigney, State University Teachers College, Geneseo, New York. Speakers are Karl F. Robinson, Northwestern University; Letitia Lord, Speech Consultant to the Board of Education, Darien, Connecticut; and Alice S. Austin, State University Teachers College, New York.

"Extra-Curricular Speech Activities in the High School" will be a panel discussion with Betty May Collins, Memphis Technical High School, as chairman. Panel members are John M. Martin, Oakwood High School, Dayton; Doris Niles, Will Rogers High School, Tulsa; Evelyn Konigsberg, New York City Schools;

Bea Olmstead, Hamtramck High School, Detroit.

"Speech Improvement and Correction in the Elementary Schools" has been prepared by Mamie Jones of the Georgia State Department of Education. The College and University Offerings for the Classroom Teacher and the Team Concept of the Speech Correctionist and the Classroom Teacher are two of the subjects that will be presented and discussed.

"High School Declamations or Readings, Contests or Festivals" promises a lively discussion to be presided over by Chloe Armstrong of Baylor University. Panel participants already chosen are Edna Gilbert, State Teachers College, Minot; Wilma Grimes, Montana State University; Betty May Collins, Memphis Technical High School.

In all the above programs time has been reserved for questions and discussion from the audience.

The reading hours in interpretation, which have always proved popular with the membership, this year will be in charge of Sara Lowrey of Furman University and Helen Hicks of Hunter College. Tours of three television studios have been arranged by Steve Hathaway of Miami University.

A tea for elementary and secondary school teachers has been planned by Evelyn Miller, Seattle Public Schools, Second Vice-President of the Association. At this social occasion you will have an opportunity to meet officers of the regional associations and authors of textbooks.

As usual, the American Educational Theatre Association is meeting with us and has scheduled a full complement of sectional and project meetings, many of which are directed to the problems of dramatics in the high schools, the community, and the Children's Theatre.

A social feature this year will be the complimentary reception-tea given for the membership by the Crosley Broadcasting Corporation of Cincinnati. Miss Katherine Fox, Director of Special Broadcast Services, will serve as hostess.

At the last session on the third day will be held the Convention Critiques.

BOOK REVIEWS

Henry Mueller, *Editor*

THORNDIKE-BARNHART HIGH SCHOOL DICTIONARY. By E. L. Thorndike and Clarence L. Barnhart. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1952; pp. xxiv+1096. \$4.00. (Thumb-indexed, \$4.40.)

In his prefatory notes the junior author lists eleven "Outstanding Features of this Dictionary": The purpose and scope are to meet the special needs of high school students. The over 75,000 words entered have been chosen on the basis of three general word counts. The arrangement presents biographical names, geographical names, abbreviations, and foreign words and phrases in the body of the dictionary, instead of following the conventional dictionary practice of relegating them to appendices. The definitions, insofar as possible, explain the entries in simpler terms than the word being defined in simple, direct statements; illustrative phrases and sentences are used freely; ideas are arranged in order of their importance (*i.e.*, frequency); all specific information essential to understanding each word is given; pictures, diagrams, and maps (many of them "blown up" from *The Thorndike-Century Senior Dictionary*) are widely used. There are several aids designed to facilitate the user's finding a word of whose spelling he is uncertain. Derivatives are listed in groups or made as separate vocabulary entries according to whether or not their relations to their roots are obvious. Pronunciation is indicated by a one-sound-one-symbol system based on spelling frequencies. Etymologies are presented as briefly as is compatible with completeness. Synonyms are keyed to specific definitions: they are entered under the most commonly used word; meanings common to synonyms are cited before there is differentiation among them; differentiations and discriminations among words with related meanings are explained in the simplest possible terms and illustrated with sentences and phrases. Usage notes help the writer or speaker to choose the word which best expresses his idea. Boldface type is used for entries, roman for definitions, italic for illustrative sentences and phrases and for grammatical labels.

It is, of course, impossible to evaluate a

dictionary fairly without keeping it close at hand and using it for a period of several years. The following comments are therefore offered as tentative judgments based on admittedly too brief and incomplete acquaintance with the *Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary*.

There is no immediately discernible reason for quibbling with the purpose and general scope, the selection of material, nor the arrangement of the dictionary. With some of the definitions I have a quarrel on the grounds that in attaining simplicity they have sacrificed both accuracy and specificity, *e.g.*, the following definitions of *larynx*:

1. cavity at the upper end of the human windpipe, containing the vocal cords and acting as an organ of voice.
2. a similar organ in other mammals, or corresponding structure in other animals.
3. in birds, either of two cavities, one at the top and one at the bottom of the windpipe.

At the opposite pole are the definitions of terms from the physical sciences, which for a consultant who has studied only the biological sciences are more confusing than the terms themselves.

At this writing I have no grounds for challenging the claims made for the treatments of spelling and derivatives in the dictionary, but the controversies which my students have asked me to arbitrate have led me to conclude that pronunciation keys should have a slightly broader foundation than "significant sounds." I realize that the differences between [ask] and [æsk], and [hɒt] and [hat] are non-phonemic, but I should prefer a system in which "ä" does not double for [a] and [ä], "er" for [ɜr], [ɜ], and [ɔ], "o" for [ɒ] and [a], "ö" for [ɔ] and [ɒ], and "ər" for [er], [ɜ], and [ə]. I should like, too, an indication that "long u" may be [ɪu] as well as [ju]. On the other hand, assuming that users of this dictionary will read and heed "How to Use the Pronunciations" (I am considering offering a prize to the reader who can submit an assumption less valid), I think the scheme of indicating pro-

nunciation is probably as good as that of any other dictionary, excepting, of course, the Kenyon-Knott.

The treatments of etymologies and synonyms have my whole-hearted endorsement. To a reactionary the usage notes are of varying worth. I applaud the ones following the entries for "disinterested" and "extemporaneous," deplore those for "imply" and "verbally," and wish that under "presently" the high school student had been told that the word is not synonymous with "currently."

The typographical features are most commendable. This dictionary's superior legibility is enhanced by the gratifying whiteness and opacity of the page, achieved by using a thickness of stock which renders the book rather bulky in the hand. One wonders if the spine will withstand the rigors of teen-age handling.

H. L. M.

THE APE IN OUR HOUSE. By Catherine Hayes. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951; pp. vi+247. \$2.50.

Those who have patiently experimented, watched, and hoped as they have worked with speech-handicapped children will find emotional rewards and perhaps some new ideas as they follow the efforts of two psychologists bringing up a chimpanzee from her first few weeks to her third birthday. The prospective teacher of speech might gain insight into the experimental attitude one needs to develop for such work.

Under a grant from the American Philosophical Society, Catherine and Keith Hayes took into their home a baby chimpanzee from the Yerkes Laboratories of Primate Biology in Orange Park, Florida, where Keith is engaged in research. They made every attempt to bring her up as a child would be brought up in a normal home.

"We wondered, for instance, why apes do not speak, and whether they could be taught to do so by special methods and great effort. Besides language what distinguishes their behavior from that of people, we wondered? . . . How intelligent are apes, in comparison to man?" they question in the introduction. About three years after beginning their experiment they have some partial answers. By teaching Viki to say "mama," "papa," "boo," "oo," and

"cup," they have negated the contention that the larynx of the chimpanzee is not adequate for speech. Speech clinicians at the University of Michigan were of the opinion that Viki exhibited great fluctuation in speaking and understanding "because of a condition resembling human aphasia." Psychological clinics found her several months beyond her age level in everything except language.

The 242 pages of the report (it is supplemented by 66 photographic illustrations) are written in a semi-journalistic diary form and present a very warm, human picture of a unique experiment on the part of two people who seem admirably equipped to withstand the rigors of living with an arboreal child who leaps from refrigerator to door case, tipping over and smashing most of the household china in transit.

Early learning was predicated on the conditioned response based on food reward. Imitation was constantly used in many learning activities. Even though Viki has a hearing range far beyond that of human beings, she did not imitate sounds. Random sounds were encouraged when they developed. One sound pattern which came early was "oo," which expressed wonderment, alarm, and, at times, contentment. A later sound was the *a* of *father*. At about 24 months a specific attempt was made to teach the word "mama." At morning food time Keith utilized the kinaesthetic approach, placing his fingers on Viki's lips to bring them together and sounding "ah" after her lips parted. By this time Viki was so conditioned that she knew she would get no breakfast without some imitative attempt, much as a dog learns to "speak" for his food. The succeeding steps in teaching "m" and association of the word with specific needs and persons are too involved to summarize in this brief review. An interesting photograph shows Viki placing her lips in Keith's hands to make the word "mama" come, although she could already utter it without this initial stimulus.

Psychologists interested in the learning process and the problems of behavior and emotions, and speech teachers will find of interest any further reports of the Hayes' experiment.

CLAIR B. WEIR,
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IN THE PERIODICALS

Elizabeth Andersch, *Editor*

Assisted by Carroll Arnold and Gordon Wiseman

SPEECH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Of General Interest

ALPREN, MORTON, "Role-Playing: 'Misfires' and Successes," *The Clearing House*, 29 (May 1952), 554-556.

Mr. Alpren has been using role-playing to clear up a number of situations and topics in his High School class and would like to use his experience to "remove some of the mystery that surrounds" this spreading technique. He shows by examples why a first cast of characters may fail, and why a second or third may succeed. He sums up what he has learned about role-playing in five bits of advice.

ALY, BOWER, AND KARL R. WALLACE, "A Program of Speech Education," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 7-21.

This article was prepared by a special committee appointed by the Executive Council of the Speech Association of America. This entire issue of *The Bulletin* is devoted to Public Address in the Secondary Schools.

This article is divided into three parts: I. Point of View; II. Speech and General Education in the Schools; III. Speech in Specialized Education. The following topics are discussed in these three parts:

The Basic Facts of Speech, Speech and the Citizen, Speech and the Leader, Speech and the Schools, Tests of Speech and Hearing, Speech and Learning Situations, Speech in the School Curriculum and in Extra-Curricular Activities.

Many helpful and practical ideas are given here and a basic philosophy is set forth.

BANKSTON, H. S., "Human Relations and Helping Teachers," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 29 (July 1951), 34-37.

The job that faces the teacher in the typical classroom is a fascinating but extremely difficult one, with many factors contributing to its complexity. Of these factors, probably the most elusive and difficult is the matter of the "feelings of people (with whom the teacher works and cooperates) and the behavior they engender." The author suggests that "it would

probably bring about a minor educational miracle if principals, supervisors, parents, and consultants, while rendering various kinds of assistance to teachers, would always practice good human relations."

Personal feelings can be managed "through frank, sincere, tactful discussion, out of which genuine understandings and acceptance can be developed if efforts are sustained."

CREEGAN, ROBERT F., "Man, the Method-Maker," *Journal of General Education*, 6 (January 1952), 106-112.

Resting his argument on the thesis: "Things react, animals learn, and man learns about learning; and what man learns about learning transforms all his doing and learnings"; the author reasons that "the work and the word of the teacher in general education are simply the work of becoming human in the most universal sense, and exhibiting the types of learning, of unlearning, and of relearning which are inevitably involved in this, the vocation of man."

FERRELL, FRANCES HUNTER, "The Right Word Makes a Difference," *Social Education*, 16 (March 1952), 107-108.

This is an article on General Semantics and its importance in social studies. It is suggested: (1) We must make students aware of the one-word, one meaning fallacy, pointing out to them the "chameleon-like" quality of many of the words commonly used; (2) Direct their attention to the use of abstract terms; (3) Build up their defenses against slanted words; (4) Insist that they define the terms they use with accuracy and precision and then stick to the definition agreed upon.

FINCH, HARDY, "Everyone Takes Speech," *Scholastic Teacher*, 60 (April 2, 1952), 16T-17T.

This is an account of a six-week course in Speech given in each tenth grade English course, Greenwich (Conn.) High School.

Each student was given a speech test of which a recording was made as a guide to self-improvement. The course included "how-to-do" demonstrations, correct ways of standing, walk-

ing, and sitting. For final speeches they met in the auditorium for the experience of speaking from the stage.

Other speech-teaching ideas given were: use of the telephone, speaking in the community, tongue twisters, reading and dramatization of plays, choral reading, speech and writing, discussions, and audience behavior.

FORD, NICK AARON, "The Responsibility for Language Usage," *Journal of Higher Education*, 23 (March 1952), 153-155.

The author registers objections to the tendency of linguists to "undermine the standard concepts of sentence structure and punctuation." Instead, it is argued, linguists and phoneticians "should be the last to adopt language changes inaugurated by the masses," else language usage must become chaotic and without teachable discipline.

GRIFFITHS, DANIEL E., "The Reality of Change," *Progressive Education*, 29 (March 1952), 161-162.

Since "we do not live in an unchanging, immutable world," teaching by means of problems and specially designed situations is essential if students are to recognize change for what it is—a reality that will be with them always.

HAINFELD, HAROLD, "Film Care," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 18 (April 1952), 18.

Brief suggestions on the care and storage of film and filmstrips.

HALL, CLIFTON L., "The Alms-Basket of Words," *School and Society*, 75 (March 1952), 129-133.

A thought provoking article on the teaching profession's use of "jargon" and the problems it causes. It is suggested that many teachers become "bogged down in a morass of pseudo-scientific jargon." If good public relations are to be maintained, words on a lower level of abstraction must be employed by our teachers. The caution is also given that teachers will not acquire much professional status solely on the basis of their knowledge of professional jargon.

HOBBS, NICHOLAS, "Some Notions About Guidance," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 29 (January 1952), 229-233.

Commenting on the semantic quandry surrounding the word "guidance," the author explains why guidance is an important need in our complex, modern-day society and where the responsibility for proper direction lies. "Let's say that our guidance worker is a person trained

to help children and to help others to help children, to gain deeper understandings of themselves, to extend personal horizons, to get information and experience needed for personal problem solving, and finally, to work out patterns of living that are satisfying to the individual and satisfactory to society."

KELLEY, HAROLD AND ALBERT PEPITONE, "An Evaluation of a College Course in Human Relations," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, 43 (April 1952), 193-209.

This course was offered in the Department of Economics and Social Science, but conducted on an interpersonal communication basis of an informal and "nondirective" style of teaching with questions, discussion, specific teaching techniques (e.g., the use of role-playing). It is interesting to see what they were able to do in this field using the methods established in group dynamics.

KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H., "Further Learnings Needed in Citizenship Education," *Progressive Education*, 29 (May 1952), 243-245.

A distinguished educational philosopher calls for an educational program which teaches young and old to "act on thinking" and which recognizes that "citizenship is best learned in life" both in and out of the school.

KLOTSCH, J. MARTIN, "Oral Communication in Today's World," *The Central States Journal*, 3 (November 1951), 1-4.

The author discusses four ways in which oral communication is being used at the present time. He sees it as an instrument of tyranny, of deception, of self-congratulation, and an instrument of enlightenment.

He points out that teachers of speech have a real opportunity to develop speech as an instrument of enlightenment in order that "we can carry our ideas of freedom in that part of the world which is still free [and] eventually . . . succeed in carrying our ideas of freedom into that part of the world which is not yet free."

LILLYWHITE, HEROLD, "Toward a Philosophy of Communication," *The Journal of Communication*, II (May 1952), 29-32.

The author presents a personal philosophy of communication.

MACKENZIE, GORDON M., AND HARRY A. PASSOW, "Research in Group Behavior," *The Nation's Schools*, 49 (April 1952), 71-73.

"The terms group behavior, group dynamics, and group process are all terms used to describe

a new area of investigation which is at the very heart of present day classroom instruction." Placing this importance on this process the authors go ahead to list and explain seven important findings from the studies in group dynamics that have significance for teaching methods at all levels from the nursery school through college and adult education programs.

They are: (1) The major influence on children in the classroom is interaction with others; (2) Progress of pupils as well as what they learn is influenced by their social emotional needs; (3) The pattern of relationship in the classroom, or the group climate, strongly influences learning; (4) Groups within the class can be so organized as to facilitate or block learning; (5) Classes require time and help to learn to operate as a group; (6) Teachers can use group participation to change pupil behavior and attitudes; (7) Teachers can use the group in teaching problem solving.

It is then suggested that if these studies are accepted, they provide evidence that teaching can no longer find its be-all and end-all in unit plans and syllabi, technics that neither recognize nor capitalize on the important human patterns and processes in the classroom situation. A change in the status quo having been added, technics are given to meet the need, ending with these skills to be acquired by the teacher:

1. Skill in pupil-teacher planning.
2. Skill in the use of sociometric and other techniques for getting at social and communication relationships in the group.
3. Skill in the use of projective technics.
4. Development of an adequate concept of leadership.
5. Growth in democratic attitudes and behavior.
6. Skill in compiling and interpreting anecdotal records about pupil interaction.

A brief but selected bibliography is given at the conclusion of the article.

MARGARET, HELEN, "The Eye, the Ear, and the Misspelled Word," *College English*, 13 (October 1951), 29-32.

A timely article on the importance of auditory images and their importance in spelling. The author feels that because of the day in which we live—one of listening rather than reading—the speech teacher can do a great deal in correcting orthography in the speech situation. A practical suggestion for doing this is included.

MAUL, RAY C., "A Look at Our Teacher Personnel Needs," *American School Board Journal*, 124 (April 1952), 29-30.

A review of present and future needs for high school and elementary school teachers.

NICHOLS, RALPH G., "Listening Instruction in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 158-174.

It is the author's purpose "to clarify the kind of listening in which our schools are beginning to become interested, to trace the growth of recent attempts to improve this skill, to summarize what is known of the relative efficiency of reading and listening as media of learning, to delineate the premises upon which listening instruction is founded, to describe the character of the rapidly emerging direct instruction appearing in our classrooms, and to report the accumulating evidence which would seem to indicate that this communicative process is subject to training and improvement."

PHELPS, WALDO W., "Integration of Speech Education with English and Social Studies," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 79-88.

The author feels that it is a good practice to integrate speech education with English and/or social studies for the following reasons:

1. It provides a method for bringing speech training to all students.
2. The plan provides a continuing program of speech education throughout the school career of the student.
3. The plan can be evolved by every secondary school.

Some of the common practices that occur when teaching speech in the English course and their short-comings are listed. Then a "feasible method" is given for integrating speech training with English in order to make the study of both more profitable. Practical suggestions are given to implement this idea.

Although this integration is more difficult in social studies the author feels that there is a "clear-cut relationship between study and practice in speech and social studies."

PITKANEN, ALLAN M., "The Unteachable Can Be Taught," *School Executive* (June 1952), 45-49. (Note: This periodical does not carry a volume No.)

A report on special teaching methods applicable in segregated classes of retarded and "unwilling" high school students.

"Reflections on Education—I. The Quality of Mind," *Journal of Education*, 84 (April 1952), 160.

"The teacher's mind is the glass through which children get their 'intellectual' view of the world." In consequence, the author reasons, the intellectual processes which the teacher reveals, the quality of his thought, and the accuracy and refinement of his language will accomplish what no amount of attention to "method" can achieve.

RUSK, GEORGE Y., "Stereotyped or Dynamic Instruction? A Normative Study of Policies," *Progressive Education*, 29 (April 1952), 211-219.

A criticism of the "common course" or large, sectioned course taught from a common syllabus. The author charges such programs with philosophical inconsistency, contributing to professional insecurity, rigidity which restrains the teacher and weakens the incentive of students, and contributing to an excess of cultural conformity. None of these weaknesses, the author believes, operates as fully in "equivalent courses" using common basic materials with equivalent, but not common, auxiliary materials and examinations.

RUSSELL, EDWARD J., "The Superintendent and Group Dynamics," *The School Executive*, LXXI (June 1952), 77-78.

In developing a picture of the community's desires in educational planning, the wholehearted cooperation of a representative group of laymen and professional educators should be secured through the use of group dynamics techniques.

SCHREIBER, ROBERT E., "News of Latest A-V Materials and Equipment," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 18 (April 1952), 27-30.

Listing includes films and filmstrips on ballet, vocabulary building, and pronunciation.

SPEARS, HAROLD, "Ten Features of Good High-School Classrooms," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 27 (May 1952), 255-262.

The author reviews procedures involving such matters as "teacher attitudes, school atmosphere, and basic appreciations of the inherent nature of youth and fundamental American ideals, guidance principles and curricular offerings which can be found in good school operation."

SOBEL, MORTON J., "Sociodrama in the Classroom," *Social Education*, 16 (April 1952), 166-168.

Sociodrama is explained and defined and six basic steps are given for teachers trying role-playing for the first time. Mainly the author emphasizes the value of sociodrama: it provides face to face communication skills; it provides an opportunity to learn lessons painlessly without the danger of losing a job or the good will of classmates; it becomes a fact-finding device; it helps to solve problems and overcome frustration problems; it improves intercultural or intergroup understanding; it provides outlets for emotional tensions.

"The Textbook in America," *Saturday Review* (April 19, 1952), 13-23, 53. (Note: This periodical carries no volume No.)

A symposium on the influence, criticism, and censorship of school and college textbooks. Statements from a publisher, two critics, an author, a parent, a school superintendent, and a college professor are included.

WALLACE, BETTY J., "Linguistic Science and the Practical World," *Language Learning*, 4 (Nos. 1 and 2, 1951 and 52), 1.

This is an editorial praising linguistics as a science. "Linguistic science has 'pinned down' language for us. It has measured, described, and isolated basic patterns. As a result, languages are being taught far more effectively and economically today."

WILDER, THORNTON, "Toward an American Language," *Atlantic*, 190 (July 1952), 29-37.

The first in a series of essays on characteristics which distinguish American language, especially written, from European language. The author endeavors in this installment to define and illustrate some historical and contemporary patterns of American thought which have led American writers to "reshape . . . the inherited language to express our modes of apprehension."

WOODRING, PAUL, "An Open Letter to Teachers," *Harpers*, 205 (July 1952), 28-32.

A consideration of popular criticisms of public education with suggestions for self-examination and self-defense by teachers.

Drama and Interpretation

ANDERSON, JOHN E., "Psychological Aspects of Child Audiences," *Educational Theatre Journal*, II (December 1950), 285-291.

In this paper, the writer "weaves together some of the conclusions" of studies in the child development literature in an attempt to throw light on the psychological problems involved in

the design and production of entertainment for children.

He presents and discusses twelve principles and concludes with this final plea, "those interested in the children's theatre . . . [should] use an experimental and observational approach to children, without too fixed, too adult, or too preconceived an idea as to what children are like and what they need."

BALLET, ARTHUR H., "Standards for the High School Theatre," *Educational Theatre Journal*, II (December 1950), 327-332.

In an effort to stimulate the improvement of the quality of the high school play, the author sets down certain conditions which he believes are essential to satisfactory theatre work at the secondary level.

BAUHER, ARDIS, "Choral Speaking," *School Activities* (May 1952), 291-293.

This article gives a brief background of choral speaking and expresses some modern values for students. Choral speaking gives self-confidence since work is done on a group basis. It allows greater self-expression and gives a rhythmic appreciation. Stage fright may be overcome and the individual is given a chance to coordinate bodily movements with voice inflection.

Choral speaking teaches the blending of tone qualities, vividness of meaning, emphasis, strength, beauty, and rhythm.

The author suggests places and ways of using choral reading and gives a valuable listing of materials for specific and general occasions.

DEMARCO, NORMAN, "Planning Comes First," *Dramatics*, XXIII (April 1952), 5-6.

The author outlines principles in the planning and preparation of assembly and radio programs which should lead to higher standards of production. He includes in his article a helpful list of groups which distribute royalty free radio scripts, a bibliography of texts for the teacher interested in dramatic productions, a list of sources for movies, and a list of thirty program types for assembly and radio programs.

GILLETTE, A. S., "Design for the High School Theatre," *Educational Theatre Journal*, II (December 1950), 331-336.

One of the problems of any director is "to find an environment for a play and its actors that is expressive of that play but which has been so conceived that its production can be accomplished under conditions normally found in the educational theatre." The author dis-

cusses several relatively recent tendencies which meet these requirements and which have established themselves as acceptable theatre practices, including theatre in the round, formalism, and simplified realism.

GUSTAFSON, ALRICK, "Children's Theatre in Sweden," *Educational Theatre Journal*, III (March 1951), 40-43.

The author describes the Children's Theatre of Stockholm, pointing out that it is a modest effort to provide a rich experience for children, "it would seem to give promise of a sound, healthy future for this kind of theatre, possibly one which may in years to come provide the world with certain points of departure in a children's theatre. . . ."

HORTON, LOUISE C., "It's Fun," *Dramatics*, XXIII (April 1952), 12, 28.

The High School Thespians of Upper Darby (Pa.) Senior High School report that "there is a greater thrill and a real challenge in performing for an audience of children than for an adult audience."

Several other groups report on their experiences with children's productions.

McDOWELL, JOHN H., "Arena Theatre Under the Stadium," *Educational Theatre Journal*, II (December 1950), 292-295.

A report on the Stadium Theatre at Ohio State University. Located under tiers of seats in a breezeway under one of the gates of the stadium, summer plays are presented arena style.

POMERANZ, REGINA E., "A Creative Drama Club," *The English Journal*, 41 (June 1952), 303-306.

Junior high school students wrote, rehearsed, and produced their own plays as an extra-curricular activity. Writing, discussing, and acting out their own problems and experiences gave new insight to plot structure, character delineation, and dramatic interpretation as well as providing a needed outlet for repressed emotions and anxieties.

ROBINSON, KARL F., "Building Superior Men and Women," *Dramatics*, XXIII (March 1952), 10-11, 30.

The author reports on the positive results of the National High School Institute in Speech sponsored by Northwestern University each summer and outlines the general program in which the high school students enrolled in the Institutes participate.

WORK, WILLIAM W., "Adapting Shakespeare," *Players*, XXVIII (April 1952), 152.

Since many of Shakespeare's plays are too long for modern taste, contain obscure references, casting difficulties, and occasionally objectionable subject matter, they may be cut for high school production by eliminating non-essential characters, sequences, and individual speeches.

Public Speaking, Discussion, and Debate

BAIRD, A. CRAIG, "The Original Oration as a Speech Activity in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 117-126.

Answers to why we should have original oratory in the high schools are given as an introduction to a very thorough examination of the high school oration. The basic concept of an oration, its composition, and delivery are treated in a practical way that would aid a coach in guiding its preparation. Helpful guides in judging an oration are listed, plus a sample ballot to be used in such a contest. The article concludes with a sound philosophy for intraschool and interscholastic contests.

BUYS, WILLIAM E., "Extracurricular discussion in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 89-101.

Discussion is handled from a "problem solving procedure" and its ultimate and immediate objectives are given. An excellent list of objectives for the individual is given in the first article. The history and evolution of discussion gives a background for discussion that adds motivation for the activity.

The many concepts of the term "discussion" are explored in order to evaluate "good practices" in discussion. Some of the misconceptions regarding discussion and new directions that discussion will take conclude the article.

DIETERT, CHESTER C., "Why Not Have a Student Panel Discussion?" *School Activities* (May 1952), 293-294.

This is an account of how a student high school panel was successfully organized and conducted and given before a PTA Meeting. The subject was *Freedom*, particularly legislation for freedom. The method of developing the program is given along with the outline and questions used.

HARNACK, R. VICTOR, "Competition and Cooperation," *The Central States Speech Journal*, 3 (December 1951), 15-20.

This article, based on a Master of Arts thesis, summarizes some of the highlights of research accumulated in the area of human relations and deals particularly with the problem of competition and cooperation in the field of speech.

"The Harmony Boys," *Harper's*, 205 (July 1952), 94-95.

The ubiquitous "Mr. Harper" pronounces himself a "conference bum" surfeited with the vagaries of conference methods and sighs for the discipline of formal debate in deliberations on public questions.

HANCE, KENNETH G., "Newer Types of Extracurricular Activities in Public Speaking," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 132-157.

The author attempts to enlarge the vision of the director of forensics by setting forth the objectives and procedures of several "newer" types of extra-curricular activities in public speaking and indicates its relationship to the broad areas of inquiry and advocacy.

Modifications of the typical educational debate are given. The four plans of debate (the Debate Symposium; Cooperative Investigation; Intercollegiate Forum; and the Problem Solving Debate) are discussed in detail.

The Discussion Progression and the Student Congress are discussed in great detail, giving the reader a thorough understanding of each. A wealth of helpful information is found in the latter part of the article.

HANCE, KENNETH G., Editor, "Public Address in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 7-192.

This issue of this magazine is highly recommended to every teacher of speech as a handy reference of up-to-date material in the area of public address. The articles are written by experienced men in the field and constitute the thinking of public address in the world of 1952. The magazine may be had by sending \$1.50 to the publishers at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

HIBBS, R. P., "Extracurricular Debating in the Secondary Schools," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 102-116.

The author sums up his article in the last paragraph of his introduction by saying: "In this discussion . . . we must emphasize what a sound and skillful teacher wants to teach and what he should teach when he teaches debating. We hope to show what kind of

persons become debaters, and, more importantly, what kind of persons debaters become. We should like to refer briefly to what we believe to be results, good and bad, of extracurricular debating programs. We should like to refer casually, rather than categorically, to some of the ideals and goals of the debating art as practiced in high schools. We hope to indicate in a general way what is good debating, what a good extracurricular debating program is, and what a good director is. We shall refer to current practices and, in light of schools' experiences, make a few recommendations for the extension and improvement of extracurricular debating in high schools."

HOWELL, WILLIAM S., AND WINSTON L. BREMBECK, "Experimental Studies in Debate, Discussion, and General Public Speaking," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 175-192.

The study of the effects of debate, discussion, oratory, and extempore speaking on attitudes has been the object of a number of researchers. The author has surveyed such studies in this article and summarized the agreements resulting from each area separately.

KELLER, PAUL W., "A Secondary School Course in Discussion," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 45-56.

This article suggests objectives for a course in discussion and gives the following ten units of course organization: I. Nature of Discussion; II. Topics for Discussion; III. An Orderly Approach to Problem Solving; IV. Techniques of Preparing for Discussion; V. Concepts of Leadership; VI. Techniques of Leadership; VII. Attitudes in Participation; VIII. Techniques in Participation; IX. Interpersonal Relations; X. Types and Forms of Discussion. These units are detailed. An evaluation list for rating discussion is included. The article concludes with two new possible directions for discussion: increased training in the attitudes and skills involved in listening and a new direction in our approach to leadership training.

KELTNER, JOHN W., AND KARL F. ROBINSON, "Suggested Units in Discussion and Debate for Secondary Schools," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 72-78.

The authors suggest that it isn't only important, in studying discussion and debate, that the students know fundamental information and principles, but that they develop skill in

the practice of discussion, and argumentation and debate.

A plan is given for achieving both these objectives. This plan consists of five units under the following headings: Unit I. Preparation for Argumentation; Unit II. Construction of the Debate Case; Unit III. Refutation; Unit IV. Oral Language and Delivery; Unit V. A Debate Tournament. Specific objectives are given for each unit as well as activities to implement the objectives. Bibliographies are listed with each unit as well as suggested lectures and time limitations. All the material is presented in a concise form that makes it readily available to the teacher.

MCBURNEY, JAMES H., "The Role of Discussion and Debate in a Democratic Society," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 22-26.

The purpose of this article is to reduce the "cleavage which appears to exist in some quarters between the proponents of discussion, on the one hand, and of debate on the other." The author states objectives of debate and discussion as: "we believe discussion and debate to be essential social tools; we believe it important that the schools give the students an understanding of these tools and skill in their use."

Discussion and debate are discussed separately by the author.

An excellent diagram, "Approaches for the Speaker and Some of Their Political and Philosophical Correlates," designed to show the relationship between discussion and debate is included.

MILLS, GLEN E., "Extemporaneous Speaking and Oratorical Declamation as Speech Activities in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 127-131.

Several plans are set forth for handling an Extemporaneous Speaking Contest. Practical suggestions are given for smooth working of each phase of the contest. Participation in these contests "that are properly conducted should supplement the work of the speech classes in developing students in these respects: (1) confidence and poise in social adaptation; (2) communicativeness in voice, language, ideas and physical control; (3) personality in terms of sincerity, friendliness, information and judgment; (4) skills of analysis, investigation, and organization; (5) improved audience analysis and adaptation, and (6) critical thinking in reading, writing, speaking, and listening."

NICHOLS, EGBERT RAY, "Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating," *Speech Activities*, 8 (Spring 1952), 5-8.

The progress of academic debate falls into natural divisions corresponding to the decades, beginning 1892. A brief characterization of each decade is given by the author with a survey of the history of the activity until 1933.

REEVES, WALTER J., "A Secondary School Course in Argumentation," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 57-71.

A definition of argument is given: "It is the endeavor to have other people accept and act upon one's conclusions. The result may be immediate action, such as voting in favor of or against a proposition, or the quickening of the listener's thought along the line which one has proposed."

Objectives are set forth and the author suggests that a course in argumentation, properly conceived, should provide the student with information concerning such topics as: (1) propositions for argument and debate; (2) means of getting material; (3) means of analyzing the proposition; (4) brief-making; (5) evidence; (6) reasoning; (7) means of refutation; (8) the nature of persuasion; (9) style; (10) delivery. In fact, it may well be said that these are the indispensable units of such a course. To omit any of these units is to encourage sophistry on the one hand, or inadequate "energizing" of the methods of logic on the other hand.

Each of these units is discussed and a wealth of information is given to the teacher who is called upon to teach a course of argumentation in the Secondary School.

SEABURY, HUGH F., "A Basic Secondary Course in Public Speaking," *The Bulletin of Secondary-School Principals*, 36 (May 1952), 27-44.

Objectives of our high schools are given as a background for the objectives of a basic course in public speaking. Both negative and positive objectives are set forth for the basic course in public speaking and concrete definitions are given of high abstract terms so frequently used in discussing this problem.

The author feels that it is possible to construct a basic course in public speaking that will provide for: (1) the appraisal of each student's interests, needs, abilities, and capacities in speaking and reading aloud; (2) the orientation by each student in principles, fundamentals, and practices of speaking, reading aloud, and observing and listening; and (3) the development of each student's abilities in speaking, reading aloud, observing and listen-

ing, and in his adjustment to speaking situations.

A profitable discussion of each one of these topics is given in some detail providing many useful suggestions for any speech teacher.

TOWNSEND, EDWARD A., "The Case for Discussion," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 33 (May 1952), 423.

An educational psychologist takes issue with those who recommend discussional methods in all learning situations. Discussion is "a technique for the exchange of opinions regarding the known" and cannot be used effectually where the aim of communication or instruction "goes beyond the known to the unknown."

Radio and Television

CAMERON, JAMES B., "Cleveland Citizens Meet Their Schools via Television," *The Nation's Schools* (June 1952), 84-90.

The Cleveland Board of Education sponsored a fifteen minute TV program, "Meet Your Schools," each week. Since the board owns and operates its own radio station it had command of a trained staff for this assignment. They presented classroom lessons, taught as they are taught every day with occasional special subjects, such as "football," "Christmas," "Lincoln's birthday."

This medium can be a revelation of the teacher, his class, and therefore the school, and also a decided factor in developing respect for an extremely difficult job, teaching.

Several problems arose. One of the first was the problem of elimination versus compression of program content, and it was found that detailed viewing of fewer things can be better than a sketchy overview of the subject.

The use of the same master of ceremonies, a standard opening and closing with music, and studio cards for visual credits were the only contribution to the standard format idea.

The use of motion picture film brought an unexpected problem for, unless the film was prepared for television, it usually was unprofitable to use. Slides were avoided because they were too static. It was better to use pictures, charts, maps, and other visual material in the studio where demonstrative use can be made of them, than to narrate behind slides.

Learning to arrange and move materials and persons to obtain the best possible televising still presents the most difficult problem.

"The results of the Cleveland programs have not been spectacular, but have been gratifying and much evidence is that the program is help-

ing to improve relationships between the school system and the community."

The detailed information in this article would prove valuable to those anticipating or already participating in TV programming.

ROODY, SARAH I., "Effect of Radio, Television, and Motion Pictures on the Development of Maturity," *The English Journal*, 41 (May 1952), 245-250.

A plea for wider use of contemporary dramatic and discussion programs as points of departure in teaching a mature understanding of human behavior, especially as it is revealed through literature.

TEMPLE, WILLIAM J., "TV Begins at \$100,000," *Scholastic Teacher*, 60 (May 7, 1953), 25T.

The author says that educators do not realize how much it is going to cost to equip and operate TV Stations. It compares in cost with a school building. The lower limit is about \$100,000; there is no upper limit.

Specific information on costs is available in a booklet on *Station Planning*, prepared by the Television Transmitter Div., Allen B. DuMont Laboratories, Inc.

The article gives important information regarding costs and planning of a TV Station for Schools.

WITTY, PAUL, "Two Studies of Children's Interest in TV," *Elementary English*, 29 (May 1952), 251-257.

A report on the televiewing habits of elementary school children in Evanston, Illinois. Average time spent before the television set was slightly less in 1951 than in 1950. The author also finds teachers highly critical of TV programming although they appear to be less familiar with program offerings than parents or pupils. Two education needs are implied: (1) more constructive guidance in program selection from the home and from the school and (2) a concerted effort by parents and teachers to emphasize and provide a varied pattern of recreational activities for the child.

SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Of General Interest

American Childhood, published monthly, except July and August. Each issue contains plays and poems for oral reading.

BRINKER, EVVA, "Of Course You're Using a Play," *American Childhood*, 37 (October 1951), 16-17.

The author feels that the production of plays is the "one royal road" to learning. She discusses briefly such problems as choosing and casting the play, introducing the play to the children, and other production problems.

HEYMAN, CAROLYN W., "Paper Puppets," *American Childhood*, 37 (April 1952), 6-7.

These paper puppets would be useful in story-telling and in speech development work.

REISS, MADELINE, "Can the Comics Help?" *The Volta Review*, 54 (April 1952), 155-157.

The author reports on the popularity of comics and points out that the testimony of experts reveals that the reading of comics has an influence on language, does not lead to delinquency, and may be useful material in the teaching of reading.

ROGERS, DOROTHY, "Teaching Children to Think Creatively," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 29 (March 1952), 268-273.

"Perhaps the most important, and most neglected, of our natural resources is creative thinking." The author believes, that while educators recognize the importance of original thinking, a great gap exists between the goal and achievement. She evaluates this situation, pointing out practices which hinder the development of creative thinking, and outlines methods for remedying the situation.

STAINS, KATHERINE G., "Principles of Child Guidance for Teachers of Young Children," *American Childhood*, 37 (April 1952), 13-15, 43.

Nineteen principles based on an understanding of the young child, his characteristics, and his needs which the author feels should guide the teacher in the construction of the curriculum are discussed.

STARR, ANNA SPIESMAN, "The Rutgers Drawing Test," *The Training School Bulletin*, 49 (May 1952), 45-64.

"The Rutgers Drawing Test has been presented with norms for use in the study and examination of young children. While such norms are expressed in terms of the age at which average children are found able to copy the series or geometric figures, the value of the test is not limited to such scores. It has particular value in revealing types of reaction indicative of personality characteristics."

An appendix to this report provides a facsimile of the test, a series of scoring samples for each figure, and a short bibliography.

SULLIVAN, MAE TANSEY, "Have Fun With Phonetics," *American Childhood*, 37 (December 1951), 16-18.

The author suggests specific ways of merging play and work in the teaching of sounds in the early elementary grades.

TOPP, ROBERT F., "Preadolescent Behavior Patterns Suggestive of Emotional Malfunctioning," *Elementary School Journal*, 42 (February 1952), 340-343.

Some evidences of temporary or persistent abnormal emotional conditions are enumerated. The author also discusses the manner in which knowledge of such behavior patterns may be useful to classroom teachers in discussing with parents the child's problems and in arranging for diagnosis by suitably trained persons.

Speech Correction

DAVENS, EDWARD, "Public Health and Hearing Conservation," *Exceptional Children*, 18 (April 1952), 193-195.

"There is a critical need for community-wide planning of services for children with impaired hearing. A logical initial step is the development in health departments of hearing-conservation programs." Such services should be planned to "conform to the needs of the child."

DUSENBERY, H. S., "Hearing Aid Helps," *The Volta Review*, 54 (March 1952), 111-112.

Given the proper care, a hearing aid will give adequate and continued service. The author outlines suggestions for the care and protection of this device.

EVANS, MARSEE FRED, "Efficiency is the Goal in Cerebral Palsied Speech," *The Crippled Child* (April 1952), 19-21, 30

Dr. Evans mentions three factors to keep in mind about the cerebral palsied child. (1) The area affected remains in constant size and there is no increase in severity except as the child grows and changes the problem. (2) The children as a group are no different from other children except that they are cerebral palsied. (3) The goal of speech habilitation (and 60-75% need speech training and therapy) for a cerebral palsied child is not normalcy, but efficiency.

The author discusses some general basic principles underlying all speech habilitation and adds specific helpful practices.

LORE, JAMES I., JR., "The Student with a Hearing Problem," *Delaware School Journal*, 17 (March 1952), 9.

The author reports the proper procedures for locating and assisting children with hearing losses within an entire state school system.

MIERS, EARL SCHENCK, "The Right to be Different," *Exceptional Children*, 18 (May 1952), 225-228.

Crippled children "are a normal part of our society. We must provide more than the usual orthopedic and therapeutic aid for them; we must give of ourselves and make them feel a wanted part of society."

PEARLSTEIN, MEYER A., "The Child with Cerebral Palsy," *N.E.A. Journal*, 41 (April 1952), 215-216.

A physician discusses the interrelation of therapy and education for the cerebral palsied child.

POULOS, THOMAS H., "Improving the Intelligibility of Deaf Children's Speech," *The Volta Review*, 54 (June 1952), 265-267, 284.

Maintaining that some degree of intelligible speech is necessary in order to fit the deaf child into our hearing society, the author explains some of the problems and conditions which accompany teaching speech to the deaf.

He points out the electronic devices available to the speech teacher, the roles of the teacher and the parents, and the coordination of the whole program.

SORTINI, ADAM J., "The Efficacy of Acoustic Programs," *The Volta Review*, 54 (May 1952), 201-203.

The author reviews the available literature on acoustic programs for hard of hearing children in an effort to determine which type of program is most successful for hard of hearing individuals.

WADDELL, JESSIE F., AND MARY A. BLAIR, "Michigan Looks Toward Coordinating Its Work for Crippled Children," *The Child*, 16 (November 1951), 37-39, 44.

The occupational and physical therapists of Michigan, in an effort to bring together the many types of professional workers who serve crippled children, included in their 1951 joint conference, physicians, teachers, school officials, nurses, social workers, and speech therapists.

WOODWARD, HELEN, "A Child and His Hearing Aid," *The Volta Review*, 54 (June 1952), 261-262, 288, 290.

This article suggests ways in which parents can help deaf children to get the maximum value from a hearing aid.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

David Potter, *Editor*

TRAINING COURSE IN EFFECTIVE SPEAKING, A Home Study Record Course. Carpenter, Gray L., and Stokes, Paul M. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York, 1952.

This course consists of seven double-faced non-breakable records in an attractive carrying kit which also includes a two-volume Instruction Manual and a Funk & Wagnalls Dictionary. The manual and records are to be used together while the learner sits in his room. Advertising blurbs under the title of "Dramatizing Your Voice" greatly exaggerate what the course can accomplish.

In general the course content is imitative and consists primarily of teaching such techniques as phrasing, the pause, accent, emphasis, and the like. It is not substantive and definitely does not teach the primary needs of one who wants to improve his total speech ability. It does not offer a modern, practical approach to adults via home study, which is what it claims to do. The manual is not clear and is remarkable for its complicated vacuity. The course is not recommended.

PAUL BROWNSTONE,
The Pennsylvania State College

LEARNING FROM CLASS DISCUSSION. Coronet 1950. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and White. Sale \$50.00. Color. Sale \$100.00.

This film attempts to show the value of discussion as a learning tool in the classroom. It also brings out some of the basic principles of leading and participating in discussion. The latter objective is accomplished only to a limited extent, and the film would not be rated high as a teaching tool in the use of discussion methods. The former objective is done pretty well in that the film should motivate any teacher to realize that class discussion stimulates the thinking and the learning of the class group.

The setting is a high school class in which the relative values of city and country living are being considered. The teacher encourages comments and participation by asking questions and creating areas of controversy. The students are rather formal in making their comments after raising the hand, being recognized, and standing. The camera then focuses on the

speaker standing as though he were making a short "speech." In this sense and in the general conduct of the discussion, the atmosphere is one of formality and mechanics rather than informal and lively give-and-take among the group. The teacher might also take a more active part in summarizing and emphasizing transitions.

The mechanics of the film are fair. Photography could be more clear cut and the sound track is a bit fuzzy.

With these limitations, the film is recommended for high school classes, primarily to stimulate the students to see the value of exchanging their thoughts by the discussion method.

HAROLD P. ZELKO,
The Pennsylvania State College

HOW NOT TO CONDUCT A MEETING, General Motors 1941. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and White. Free loan.

Whether one likes this film may depend on his mood as well as his objective when he sees it. An obvious parody and burlesque on the conduct of meetings, it features the inimitable wit and grimaces of Colonel Stoopnagle in the leading role. Actually the film setting is an after-dinner situation in which Stoopnagle as toastmaster does everything wrong including the introduction of speakers, showing a film, recognizing participants, and talking too much. In other words, it is more a burlesque on the toastmaster's job at a banquet than the chairman's or conference leader's job at a meeting or conference. Nevertheless, many of the items brought into focus are common to all types of group gatherings.

The chief question is the nature of the focus of the principles brought out. The film does not attempt to teach the correct way to do the things that are done wrong. Some will question the learning value of such negative methods. Obviously the film would not be used as a serious medium for teaching correct methods of handling the principles that should be taught in conducting training in conference and meeting leadership. But this reviewer would recommend its use as a fine tool for lending a light touch to our usually staid and

solemn classroom atmosphere. It is exceedingly amusing, Stoopnagel is at his best (those who never liked him will say that even this could not be good!), and some positive values of learning are bound to seep through the maze of bewilderment that the film tries to create.

HAROLD P. ZELKO,

The Pennsylvania State College

SPEECH—STAGE FRIGHT AND WHAT TO DO ABOUT IT. Young America Films, 1949. 11 minutes sound. Black and White. Sale, \$45.

Fred Strong, an able young man in an average community, is approached in the first scene of this film by the program chairman of a local civic club to give a short talk on his experiences in Alaska. The next several scenes show Fred in various stages of mental and physical discomfort as the time for the speech draws nearer and nearer. Finally we see Fred in the actual speaking situation, fumbling and fearful. He is the victim of Stage Fright.

The narrator, who is Professor E. C. Buehler, Director of Forensics, University of Kansas, then analyzes Fred's fear, for that is how he defines stage fright—a real emotional fear. He asks, "What is Fred afraid of?" Basically, Fred is afraid of what people will say if he fails, afraid of some nameless ridicule; in short, he is afraid of himself. The narrator then invites us to watch how Fred might have given that same speech effectively without any discomfort or mental anguish beforehand if he had learned how to control the fear.

We see Fred being asked to speak again under exactly the same circumstances, but the process from there on is entirely different. There are five steps in the control of stage fright which can spell the difference between success and failure. The first of these is the development of a mental attitude of self-confidence—assure yourself that you have earned the right to speak. We watch Fred in his daily tasks as he muses to himself about the forthcoming speech. He thinks about it with confidence and eagerness—he has something to say and he has earned the right to say it.

The second step is a mechanical one, merely to write down exactly the ideas you have, listing all of the facts, stories, examples, reasons, and conclusions. Then sort these out into a single, unified pattern. Third, practice giving the speech aloud until you feel secure with the ideas. Fourth, plan to look your best. In this case, Fred had his suit pressed, wore a clean white shirt and a new tie. He gave himself plenty of time to dress carefully and

to be sure he was well groomed. Personal appearance is an excellent morale and confidence builder. Finally, when you are actually in the speaking situation, make a quick analysis of your audience and pick out the friendly faces. Obviously, not everyone will be deeply interested in your talk, so choose the people who seem to be interested and concentrate on them. The film ends as Fred finishes the speech and receives the praise of many of the club members, quite a difference from the initial situation where he failed even to complete his speech.

This film seems excellent for classroom use, since it puts the spotlight on perhaps the most important and significant problem of the young speech student—stage fright. More than that, however, it presents by illustration some of the best means of effective communication. The student can see for himself how someone else has faced the same problems he has and has solved them. The photography is good, the development of ideas within the situations is detailed and clear. There is no sense of incompleteness in the scenes. Altogether, this film is highly recommended for advanced high school groups or beginning college classes. It should prove highly stimulating for adult groups who are eager to overcome stage fright.

ROBERT H. MAUNDER,

Director of Forensics

*Lansing Sexton High School
Lansing, Michigan*

SPEECH—YOUR VOICE. Young America Films, 1950. 11 minutes sound. Black and White. Sale, \$45.

This film opens in the living room of an average, middle-class businessman, showing him discussing an insurance policy with an all too eager young salesman. The chief point of interest is in the almost unintelligible sales talk which the insurance salesman is rattling off. Although the diction errors are somewhat exaggerated, the situation focuses our attention clearly and sharply on the problem at hand—the voice.

The narrator, who is Professor E. C. Buehler, Director of Forensics, University of Kansas, using a pleasant, conversational manner, then attempts to help us analyze the problem of the young salesman as he fails to make sales. The three aims of an effective voice are introduced: (1) to be heard; (2) to be understood; and (3) to be pleasing. To illustrate how these aims are basic to good speech, the camera is switched to three separate situations, showing how bad vocal habits can block communication.

Again Professor Buehler takes over and explains that all of these bad habits are due to one basic cause—carelessness. We must, he pleads, first recognize the trouble, and then work to correct it. The film concludes with four simple rules for improvement. These rules, incidentally, are not illustrated but they are merely listed on a chart on Mr. Buehler's desk: (1) open your mouth wider; (2) project with greater volume; (3) use variety; and (4) be natural and sincere.

The film is well organized around a simple basic concept. The situations introduced are well chosen but perhaps a little too brief to be completely convincing. There is a tendency on the part of the narrator to over-simplify the problem, a fact which might very easily be discouraging to the student who thinks he has a magic formula only to discover that it

will not work. From the standpoint of the classroom, it seems that the illustrations are also a little far removed—the insurance salesman, the clubwoman, the elderly after-dinner speaker. It is unfortunate that there could not be more examples chosen from the realm of adolescent experiences. For this reason, I should recommend the film primarily for use in adult education groups. From the standpoint of motivation, of course, the film would be excellent even on the high school level to highlight the problem of poor vocal habits. The effective teacher could easily fill in the gaps by detailing what the film presents in simple outline.

ROBERT H. MAUNDER,
Director of Forensics
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NEWS AND NOTES

Jane Beasley, *Editor*

FROM PROGRAMS

Phoenix, Arizona, reports the conclusion of a successful year of expanded speech and hearing services including more extensive hearing testing, medical follow-up, and special education assistance. The program also offered speech therapy, speech improvement, and in-service teacher training.

The Coffee County School for Handicapped Children in Douglas, Georgia, has announced plans for the addition of a class for mentally handicapped children. At present the school has one class for the physically handicapped under the instruction of Miss Catherine Wood, classroom teacher. The class also receives the services of the speech therapist, Miss Sandra Loeb, director of special education for Coffee County. The school extends its services to several surrounding counties.

The NUEA Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials and Interstate Cooperation has set up for the high schools of America a new sort of discussion-debate program which is to be tried out during the academic year 1952-53. A general problem, approved by the various state debate leagues, has been selected. It is *What Form of International Organization Should the United States Support?*

During the first semester of the school year it is recommended that high school students participate in discussion concerning this problem. Three discussion questions have been set up as possible subjects for their deliberation: 1. What have been the weaknesses of past plans for world organization? 2. What functions should an effective organization of nations assume? 3. What forms of international organization appear practical at this time?

At Christmas time a debate proposition will be selected. Three possible propositions have been formulated: 1. Resolved: That the Atlantic Pact nations should form a federal union.

2. Resolved: That the United States should take the initiative in forming a federal union of all nations. 3. Resolved: That the United States should withdraw from the United Nations.

FROM CONFERENCES

Fall events in Arkansas included a meeting of the Arkansas Chapter of the International Council for Exceptional Children in Little Rock to organize local I.C.E.C. chapters in the state; a series of city and county teacher workshops with sections devoted to speech correction; and a conference of special education directors and specialists from eight states to discuss various aspects of each program.

FROM PERSONALS

The following teachers have been added to the Department of Speech Education in the Public Schools of Akron, Ohio: Miss Cherie Patin, Miss Margaret Paton, Miss Patty Ann Trapp. These three will join the other Speech teachers in the dual program of speech correction and speech improvement in the elementary schools, headed by Miss Dorothy Kester, Supervising Teacher of Speech Education.

Frederic W. Hile, for the past six years Assistant Professor and Director of the Oral Interpretation Workshop, University of Washington, and formerly Director, Division of Speech, Santa Barbara College, has been appointed Professor and Head, Department of Speech, Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa.

Mrs. Willye Maye Kyser has accepted the position of speech correctionist for the El Dorado city schools in Arkansas.

Dr. Sarah Ivey will assume her duties as head of the speech correction division of the speech department at the University of Arkansas in September. Dr. Ivey comes to this area from Wesleyan College, Georgia.

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